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ABSTRACT

This document consists of a collection of papers presented during the 1979 Utah Inter-Institutional Seminar in Childhood Education. Introductory lectures provide an overview of theories of human development and indicate techniques for understanding child behavior. Self-reflection by teachers and techniques for influencing children are emphasized. Papers presented focus on managing mathematics programs, preschools and day care centers in Sweden, Denmark and Norway; developing critical thinking skills in young children by asking specific sets of questions at seven levels of thinking; the positive effects of men in early childhood education and guiding the development of children's self concept. Other papers discussed developing a child's sense of story; developmental trends in questioning by teachers and implications for early childhood science; teachers' influence on the development of children's self concept; motivating intellectual curiosity in children; and developmental work with a severely traumatized foster child. (Author/RH)

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COLLECTED PAPERS

1979

INTER-INSTITUTIONAL SEMINAR

IN

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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PREFACE

The annual Utah Inter-Institutional Seminar in Childhood Education is sponsored by five teacher education institutions in the state of Utah and the Utah State Board of Education. The following staff members and the institutions they represent have been responsible for the planning and conduct of the seminar:

Dr. Philip Carter	Southern Utah State College
Dr. Lloyd E. Eldredge	Utah State Board of Education
Dr. Ruth Gardner	Weber State College
Dr. Arthur D. Jackson	Utah State University
Dr. Ruth Lundgren	University of Utah
Dr. Vern Wade	Brigham Young University

This publication consists of a collection of papers presented during the 1979 seminar by participants and faculty members from the participating institutions. Because of the nature of their presentations, all who made presentations did not choose to write a formal paper. Though their presentations are not found in this publication, we are indebted to them for the contribution they made.

We are also indebted to Dr. D. Keith Osborn and Dr. Janie D. Osborn. Dr. D. Keith Osborn is Professor of Child Development and Education at the University of Georgia. Dr. Janie Dyson Osborn is Assistant Professor and Coordinator of Early Childhood Education at North Georgia College. Both are outstanding leaders in education in the fields of early childhood, elementary education, discipline and classroom management.

Once again, much of the success of the seminar is a result of the untiring efforts of the staff. Each one has donated his/her time and talents in the planning and conduct of the seminar. The interest, dedication, and enthusiasm of the participants is the final measure of success. We thank all of you.

LECTURES

D. KEITH and JANIE D. OSBORN

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WAYS OF VIEWING HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

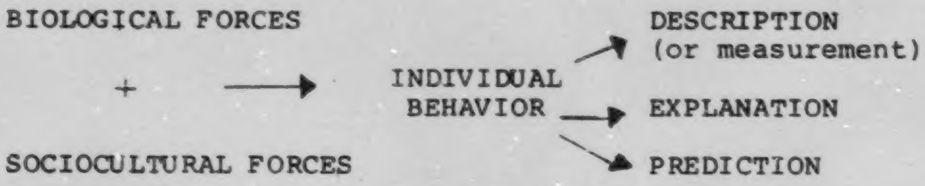
Recorded history does not reveal the first "researcher" in the area of human growth and development. It seems possible that even in antiquity, man viewed development in some sort of trial and error fashion. He observed that children were born, grew into adulthood and then were either killed or died. Over the years man has viewed his growth and development in a wide variety of ways. With the advent of organized religion, man greatly enlarged his view of how he came to be, how he developed values, how he matured, how he died and elaborated views on life after death. Down through the ages philosophers have discussed man's development -- although they usually focused on the formation of his value system. Early physicians practiced trephining, to release evil spirits from the body...but as early as 400 B.C., medicine began to be approached in a systematic, scientific manner. In other ways, man has attempted to explain growth...certainly the old wive's tales often represented an attempt to explain growth...certainly the old wives' tales often represented an attempt to explain unusual forms of development or physical maladies. (If a pregnant woman is frightened by a snake, her child will have a "snake" birthmark. If the umbilical cord is not burned, the child will have problems in toilet training.)

Some of the earliest systematic attempts to observe (and, at times, explain) growth and development in young children can be seen in the infant biographies of the 1700s. Pestalozzi (ca. 1774) kept a diary of his young son as did Dieterich Tiedemann (ca. 1787). In the early 1800s (on the Eastern seaboard of the United States) a few parent groups were established. These groups, usually called "Maternal Associations", studied the simple facts of growth and dealt with the moral and religious upbringing of children. In 1833 Feldman, a German physician, did an observational study of 35 infants in the area of locomotion.

Perhaps the beginning of "modern day" child development can be traced to several sources; Sigmund Freud (ca. 1880), in noting the importance of the early years in the emotional development of the child and its subsequent effect on the adult years, Wilhelm Wundt with the establishment of the first psychological laboratory in Leipzig, German, in 1879; Wilhelm Preyer in his extensive account of the mental development of children. His treatise, Die Seele des Kindes, is generally considered the first scientific study about children. G. Stanley Hall wrote The Content of Children's Minds, in 1883. This book was an extensive study which focused on concept development in children and contained educational implications for the teacher. From these early beginnings we have developed the scientific study of the growth and development of children.

To help us in our study of human development, let us agree on a rather simple, but practical definition: Human development (and within this large framework -- child development) is concerned with the study of individual behavior. In order to understand human behavior we must be knowledgeable of the forces which contribute to this behavior. We can divide these forces into two major groupings: Biological (which includes the genetic and maturational input) and Sociocultural (which includes the individual in the particular cultural milieu). However, professionals in the field of human development (and practitioners like teachers and parents) are not just concerned with the mere observation of behavior...they wish to describe the behavior; to explain the behavior; and, in some instances, to make predictions about future behavior. Given this information we might state: The professional study of developmental psychology (or more specifically, Child Development) is concerned with the description, explanation (and, at times prediction) of an individual's behavior that is a result of biological and sociocultural forces.

We might diagram our definition in the following manner:



A number of theories have been postulated which attempt to describe, explain and predict individual behavior. None of these theories are complete (nor do they describe all behavior)...therefore the serious student needs to be aware of the contributions which these theories can make to our understanding. Basically, the theories look at the individual, but they come from different frameworks. Most persons in the field today could discuss three major theoretical positions. These are: Psychodynamic theories, behavior-learning theories and cognitive-developmental theories. Some researchers (see Bee) would include a fourth theoretical view: the maturational theoretical approach as expounded by the late Arnold Gesell.

During the week, as we present various lectures concerning how children think, learn and behave, we will make reference to these theoretical frameworks since they help the student of child development to place his ideas in a larger context. Following are some brief highlights of the three major points of view. These will be discussed more thoroughly in class and the student is referred to the bibliography at the end of this lecture for references which approach these positions in more depth.

Psychodynamic Theories: Originally Freud postulated the psychoanalytic point of view and most of the psychodynamic theories draw from or extend this basic position. Psychodynamic theories raise the basic question: How does the individual feel? It may also ask how does the individual act? Some psychodynamic theories are historical in nature and ask: How did the individual develop (historically -- as a young child) which may influence behavior manifested in the older child or in the adult.

There are a large number of psychodynamic theories and their attempts to account for behavior are often diverse indeed. As mentioned above, some of these theories are concerned with the historic development of the individual; others (like Rational or Client-Centered therapy) tend to look at the individual's behavior in its present form with little or no interest in previous events. Psychodynamic theories emphasize the importance of relationships with people rather than with objects. Later in the week one of the lectures on discipline will look at individual behavior primarily utilizing the psychodynamic point of view.

Behavior-Learning Theories: This group of theories has its origins with Pavlov and classical learning and John Watson and his behavioristic approach. Thorndike postulated the old Laws of Effect and had a great influence on educators in the early part of the twentieth century. Later Gestalt theory influenced educators. More recently Hull and Skinner have developed theories of operant learning. In addition, Bandura has advanced social learning theories which are of interest and value to the educator. Behavior-Learning theories raise the basic question: How does the individual learn? These theorists assume that behavior is governed by the laws of learning and that children develop through the utilization of these laws of learning. Learning theorists would assume that if the child has learned inappropriate forms of behavior that these behaviors can be unlearned and that new (more appropriate) forms of behavior can be learned by following the laws of learning. This frame of reference would view man's behavior as quite pliant or malleable and his own role in the developmental process as relatively passive. Some of this group would view the infant and young child as a relatively empty organism prepared to respond to certain stimuli from the environment. Later in the week two of the lectures will deal with ways in which children learn and will discuss practical application of learning theory to the classroom setting.

Cognitive Theories: In the early 1920's, Jean Piaget began the development of cognitive theory after intensive observations of his own children. Cognitive theories raise the basic question: How does the individual think? This point of view would see the individual's role in his own development as relatively active. Individual behavior would also be seen as developing through a progression of predictable stages. The teacher should be interested in this theoretical approach for several reasons. The theory postulates that children think differently than adults in both quantitative and qualitative ways. This theory also suggests the importance of the role of language in learning and in the development of concepts. This theory also suggests that growth occurs primarily through the child's involvement and interaction with his environment. Later in the week one or two lectures will discuss the stages of development in thinking and examine the practical implications of this theory on education.

Suggested References:

LECTURE ONE: WAYS OF VIEWING HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

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HOW CHILDREN BEHAVE (Part I)

"Will the real problem child please stand up?"

As beginning teachers both of us well remember that the most difficult task was not mastery of subject matter content...rather it was learning how to deal effectively with children. Often the understanding of behavior is like a detective mystery. It remains for the teacher to search for clues and, bit by bit, to piece together solutions (or probable solutions) to the problem.

The lecture today has its roots in psychodynamic theory. Some of these roots have a Freudian or a neo-Freudian base. The assumption is made that the more knowledge you have about an individual, the better you can understand him. Obviously, if you are a teacher, this knowledge should help you to better understand the behavior of your children. It should also offer suggestions for devising strategies which can help the child.

Often, following a lecture on discipline, a teacher will direct a question to the speaker similar to the following: "I have a boy in my class who is quite aggressive. What should I do?" It is, of course, impossible to meaningfully answer this type question without further knowledge of the child and the situation. For example: What does the teacher mean by aggression? Is the aggression external or internal? What is the age of the child? What factors contribute to the aggressive

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act? We could ask many questions in connection with the problem posed by the teacher and still remain unable to provide an adequate answer.

Interestingly, in most instances, the teacher who originally made the inquiry holds the answer to her own question -- and the solution to her own problem. However, she must be willing to conduct a search within herself and to utilize the resources at her command. In our experience, most answers to classroom behavioral problems lay fallow within the teacher's own experiences; in her sensitivity to particular situations and in her ability as an observer.

In helping the teacher seek answers for dealing with a particular child, we would like to propose a two level approach. Within each level we will raise a series of questions. In utilizing this approach, the teacher will usually determine the source of the problem. In many instances, the solution may be embodied within her answers to these questions. The material which follows is presented in outline form and raises the basic questions which the teacher should consider. The lecture will discuss this material in greater detail.

Level #1: Am I the Problem?

In order to understand the child's feelings, the teacher must recognize her own. To be able to empathize with a child's feelings of anger, the teacher should be aware of her own feelings of hostility and the events which cause her to become angry. In order to understand and accept a child's feelings of anxiety; the teacher must be willing to recognize these same feelings within herself. The teacher should be cognizant of the fact that unresolved conflicts in her own life can filter into the teaching situation and have an effect on her pupils. Thus, there are instances where we find that the apparent "problem children" are, in reality, adults with a problem. Usually if we can resolve the teacher problem -- the child problem will resolve itself.

We are suggesting that whenever there appears to be a "child problem", the teacher should first engage in some self-analysis to determine if she is one possible source of the problem. The following questions are posed to provide the teacher with a "Check Up".... We visit our physician and dentist for medical and dental check-ups....these questions represent a "Teacher to Pupil Check-Up".

1. Why am I teaching anyway? This question is so basic that it should be answered by every person prior to entering the profession of teaching. What personal needs does teaching fulfill? Periodically every teacher should reexamine her philosophy and her reasons for entering the profession. In examining her philosophy the teacher should ask, "What is really significant; what really counts in my teaching?"

2. Is "what really counts" significant? At times teachers become bogged down in minutiae. They create problems for themselves and for the children they teach.

3. What do children do that upsets me? In many ways, this question is the most significant one on our checklist. Remember that some rather insignificant things can cause minor upsets. Little problems, like small bills, can really add up. Incidentally, if your list becomes too long, reconsider question number one.

4. Is my approach to children clouded by my own childhood experience? It is impossible to keep your own childhood experiences from entering and effecting your approach to children. Often these experiences can be helpful in our vicarious understanding of others. At other times, however, these experiences can interfere with your ability to deal with problems. A nervous, distraught child is often a normal child who has become upset and anxious as a result of misguided adult pressures.

5. Am I tired or upset? Children do not come to school in a vacuum...they bring the problems of the home with them. Teachers operate under the same principle! If you have problems at home; if you are worried about paying a bill; your own child is in trouble...all these things can effect teaching performance. When you think

you have a problem, ask yourself, "Is this just one of those days?" Everybody has "those days" when nothing goes right.

Summarizing statement to Level #1. Answering the previous questions can provide insight into that so-called "problem child". In a number of instances the problem will disappear as the teacher gets her own house in order. Despite low pay and minor problems, teaching is a challenging rewarding profession. One of the most satisfying experiences is to watch a child grow socially and intellectually. If relating to children in this way does not excite you and "turn you on" -- seriously review your answers to the first question.

When the teacher satisfies herself that she is not the problem, she should begin to gather information which will prove useful in diagnosing the child's problem. Gathering this information will help her as she examines the questions presented in level #2.

There are three major considerations in studying individual behavior. One is an empirical question: "How does the person actually behave in a given situation?" (Note: We will discuss the importance of obtaining accurate observations in another lecture.) The second issue is a theoretical one, "Why does he behave as he does?" The third is a practical question for the teacher: "What can I do to help this child?"

Level #2: Physical and Psychosocial Considerations.

Note: Eight major questions will be raised for the teacher to consider in assessing the physical and psychosocial condition of the child. Except for question #1, there is no order of preference to asking the questions. A short identifying statement is presented with each question, but each topic will be reviewed in greater detail in class.

1. Is the child physically sound? Many so-called behavior problems hide behind poor health. If a teacher feels that a child is experiencing difficulty, she should first check all areas connected with physical health.

2. What is the child's cultural background? The term "culture" is used here in a broad sense and this area will be developed in class discussion.

3. What is the child's learning ability? A behavior problem may really be a learning problem. Deciding upon the type of problem can really make a difference.

4. Is this a case of school "culture shock?" In today's society children are constantly on the move. They attend new institutions which may vary considerably (in terms of rules, limits and role expectations).

5. Is the child reacting to some unknown situation in the home environment? As we have mentioned earlier in

this lecture series, children do not come to school in a vacuum. Mother's illness, Daddy's new job, a new baby sister, a pending divorce -- all attend school in the mind of the child.

6. Is the child reacting to some unknown situation in the school environment? Teachers may be aware of problems which arise in the home setting, but ignore problems which may be school related. At times these problems may remain hidden and undiscovered, since they do not always occur in the classroom and within the perview of the teacher.

7. What is the child's role in his peer group? At times children may resort to bizarre behavior which makes no sense to the teacher -- but this behavior may have a real pay-off from the peer group.

8. Is the pupil going through a developmental phase? Sometimes a behavior problem "hides" in a developmental age setting. A three year old experiencing difficulties in sharing may appear selfish to an adult. But more likely he is involved in the throes of egocentricism and is cognitively unable to perceive that someone else should want the same item he desires.

If the problem persists. In the lecture there will be a short discussion of some things the teacher should consider in making a referral, if the problem or problems still persist.

HOW CHILDREN BEHAVE (Part II)

Classroom Management

We could easily spend an entire semester on techniques of classroom management. We could extend the earlier lectures and go into greater detail. For example, the previous lecture on techniques of operant conditioning could be refined, expanded and extended. We could further examine the implications of modeling. As we suggested in the lecture on modeling -- the classroom climate is usually generated by the teacher. We saw in that discussion that, in many instances -- frenetic teachers begat frenetic children; quiet, calm teachers begat quiet, calm children.

Research (like the work by Kounin) and our own clinical observations (based on our own teaching and supervisory experiences) suggest that perhaps the single most important factor in controlling classroom behavior is the teacher's ability in making the subject matter stimulating and enjoyable. When this is accomplished, children become involved and the teacher experiences fewer discipline and/or management problems. When the teacher presents her subject matter material in an interesting and relevant manner, the children are more likely to be attentive. (Our interviews with children in the middle and the high school suggests that one of their biggest complaints is, "the subject matter is not relevant to their world.) If the learning climate is dull, the teacher is unprepared, the discussions irrelevant, the material too advanced (or too simple), the assignments inappropriate -- students become bored and frustrated. The result? Children start to misbehave.

Influence Techniques: Some research findings.

By influence techniques we mean the discipline techniques the teacher uses to control or alter the behavior of the child. Research by Kounin and by Sigel and their associates does suggest that the type of technique employed can either enhance or inhibit the teacher's role. The findings also suggest that the type of technique used can affect the other children in the general classroom setting. (Note: In this discussion we will use the following terms: IT will be used to denote the term, influence technique. The target child will refer to the child being disciplined. The term, audience child will refer to the children in the classroom setting (other than the target child) who actually observe the IT being used by the teacher.

The following generalizations are presented as suggestions concerning the particular discipline technique being employed. These generalizations will be explored in greater detail in our lecture.

1. If the influence technique is clear, the target child is more likely to comply with the teacher's IT. While teachers and parents recognize this observation, it is amazing how often it is ignored. Generally adults use desist techniques which do not clarify rules or standards -- nor do they provide any corrective help or information. In most cases adults are remarkably unclear. Interestingly, most studies dealing with discipine show that the teacher focuses on stopping behavior -- rather than showing the child acceptable alternatives.

2. If the influence technique is consistent, the target child is more likely to comply. Quite simply stated, learning is much easier when the learning conditions remain constant. If children are to learn rules of behaving, the teacher must be consistent. Unfortunately, when the teacher is inconsistent, the net result is that the child begins to test the teacher -- to discover the outer limits of the rules or to test the teacher's patience.

3. If the influence technique offers the target child an alternative, the child is more likely to comply. Several years ago we conducted an informal study with a group of trained teachers and confirmed this generalization. Teachers who offered children alternative solutions -- or who redirected children to

alternate goals -- were much more successful in terms of influencing behavior. Unfortunately we observed many teachers who appeared too busy or too preoccupied to offer alternative approaches. Children were informed that some action or activity was prohibited -- but were not provided any avenues toward acceptable behavior.

4. If the influence technique informs the target child of future consequences, the child is more likely to comply. Another IT, similar in character to an alternate goal, is to provide the child with a warning. In this manner the child becomes prepared for some future action or consequence. We should point out that perhaps our biggest complaint in classroom management is that teachers warn (or threaten) children with future consequences and then seldom carry them out. (We feel this is a big problem with parents too.) In many instances children are needlessly sheltered from the consequences of their actions and do not feel or see the impact of their actions on others.

5. The intensity of an influence technique has little relation to compliance. Some teachers and parents feel that loud or rough talking will somehow coerce a child into compliance. Sigel's associates found that of all the influence techniques available to the adult, "sheer power" was the least effective IT available to gain compliance. (The term, "sheer power"

means that the adult is shouting, yelling or otherwise attempting to show the child that the adult is "the supreme authority". Needless to say, sheer power is often used by the teacher when she has exhausted all other ITs and is at "the end of her rope".)

6. If the influence technique provides a "cushion", the target child is more likely to comply. The term "cushion", is used to describe a means by which the IT can be softened or made more palatable. Research shows that when the teacher employs a "cushion", her chances of success dramatically improve. Even if she employs sheer power, her chances will be greater if she adds a cushion. Unfortunately, research also shows that most teachers do not utilize this technique. In one study we found that eighty-nine percent of the time teachers employed desist techniques without the use of a cushion.

7. When the influence technique is clear, the audience children (as well as the target child) respond with increased conformance. This research finding (by Kounin) has tremendous implications for the teacher in the classroom setting. Kounin observed that discipline has a "ripple effect" in the class. Thus, if the teacher is clear in meting out her discipline, there is a greater likelihood that both the target child and the audience child will improve in conformity. Kounin also

found that if an IT lacked clarity, the audience children responded with more non-conformity.

8. When an influence technique is firm, the audience children respond with increased conformance. Firmness is an interesting ingredient in discipline. It carries a degree of comfort for the child in the sense that the child usually translates firmness into knowing. Whenever a teacher is firm, a noticeable degree of assuredness accompanies this technique. Usually children are aware of this quality and conform to the teacher's IT.

9. When an influence technique is rough, the audience children become upset. This generalization is closely related to generalization number five. (Not only is sheer power ineffective, the IT can be upsetting to children.) The problem of highly intense control techniques has been beautifully summarized by Kounin and Gump (1957, p. 160): "Roughness did not lead to increased conformance and decreased nonconformance. Instead rough techniques were followed by an increase in behavior disruption. Severe techniques did not make for 'better' behavior in the child. Severe techniques merely upset him."

The importance of Transitions.

An important factor in any consideration of classroom management is transition from one situation or activity to another. In the average day a teacher may make 100 - 200 individual child contacts and supervise a dozen activity changes. Kounin observed that elementary classroom teachers averaged 33.2 major changes in learning activities in a single day! Thus, the teacher must be able to help children make many new shifts each day. These transitions not only require new materials but also entail a psychological alteration in one's frame of reference. These shifts can involve physically moving desks and tables; getting out new books; putting away play materials -- plus cognitive shifts to problem solving, inductive reasoning and a host of other mental exercises. In addition, the teacher must remain alert to individual and group needs. The school day should be well-balanced to offer variety, reduce boredom and maintain interest.

The teacher needs to give much thought to the nature of transitions. Research suggests that a smooth transition (in which the children are forewarned or otherwise prepared) is much less disruptive than an abrupt change. Abrupt transitions are much more likely to contribute to deviant behavior.

Studies also show that teachers may "flip flop" during transition periods. That is, the teacher stops one activity; starts a new one and then suddenly changes her mind and returns to the original activity. A "flip flop" is actually a jerky transition. It usually results in confusion, diffuse and/or deviant behavior.

Since much of the day is involved in transition and movement management, it becomes a significant dimension in control and guidance in the classroom setting.

Pacing and General Management Considerations.

The teacher has been compared to an orchestra leader, the president of a business, an agent of culture, a janitor and a traffic cop. In many ways there are elements of all these tasks embodied in the teacher's role. The teacher has many functions to perform.

In guidng many activities throughout the day, the teacher must learn to "pace" the day. One of the biggest problems with the new teacher is she does not know how to "give a rhythm" to the day and to alter activities to avoid satiation and boredom. In some instances, activities become too exciting or too intense and children move out of control.

Geographical considerations. An important factor in behavior management concerns the placement of activities and materials within the classroom.

General considerations for room arrangement include:

** Traffic patterns

** Noisy and quiet areas

** Space for large and small group activity

** Materials conveniently located

** Movable furniture

** Wet and dry areas

** Locker placement

** Window and door placement

** Storage facilities

** Color

** Balance and order

** Aesthetic appeal

Are you "With-it"?

Kounin used the term "withitness", to describe the teacher who could demonstrate to her pupils -- "I do know what is going on!" The competent teacher can communicate (often via nonverbal means) -- "I am aware of what is happening; I am in complete control of the situation."

In successful management of the class the teacher who is "with it" is capable of juggling the multi-faceted situational variables which prevail at any given moment in the school day. In the final analysis, the teacher is trying to work herself out of the business of discipline. The teacher tries to help the child learn to develop a system of internal discipline. He ultimately learns to behave in an appropriate fashion -- but not because of the teachers, policemen, parents and other reinforcers in society. He behaves appropriately because he lives in a society which respects fairness and honesty for oneself and for others.

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"MATH IS MY BAG"

PATRICIA BANKHEAD
Granite School District
Salt Lake City, Utah

The teaching of math, like any other skill, when approached with a well defined and systematic plan, will be a successful and enjoyable experience for both the children and the teacher.

An effective teacher takes the opportunity, prior to facing her students, to organize her basic curriculum structure and her curriculum enrichment activities so that direct instruction, practice activities, and skill enrichment activities are smooth and effective when presented. An effectively managed math classroom will be one with a well-managed teacher presenting a well-managed curriculum.

Step 1 in a well-managed math program is a carefully defined skill breakdown. (See attached sample skill breakdown) This breakdown will provide instructors with a good foundation on which to build their instructional program. From the skills breakdown an order of presentation needs to be established. This will eliminate the possibility of a student being instructed in a skill before prerequisite skills have been taught. A minimum area of responsibility also must be established for each instructional unit. When this area of responsibility is established each instructor knows what skills must be taught as a minimum, always knowing that he/she may go beyond that minimum.

The second step in a well-managed program is the use of a good criterion referenced test for purposes of initial placement in math and grouping for direct instruction. These criterion tests are also for use as post tests at the end of each skill instruction. It is necessary to have more than one form of your criterion test, because some students will need to be instructed and tested in a given skill more than once. Usually, one initial battery plus two or three forms of post tests per skill are adequate. These tests should be coded to correspond to your skills breakdown and filed in a central area.

The third step of a well-managed program is to establish a level of mastery. This level of mastery is a required percentage received on the formal criterion test for a given skill plus the ability for the child to demonstrate his understanding of the skill through his daily classwork.

The fourth step in the process of establishing a well-managed program is to determine an efficient method of instruction and grouping. This, of course, must vary according to the time, space, and teachers available. This decision, however, should be made with the following four guidelines in mind. These steps are essential to produce and maintain thorough mastery learning. 1) MODEL the skill or behavior desired. 2) PROMPT the students to perform that skill or behavior in a constantly monitored small group setting. 3) Provide time, materials, and follow-up for independent PRACTICE on skills already introduced through the MODEL and PROMPT steps. 4) Provide an opportunity for continuous REVIEW of skills previously taught. MODEL, PROMPT, initial PRACTICE, and REVIEW are always done in a small group with direct teacher interaction. Additional PRACTICE is done by the students independently. To facilitate the use of these four steps toward mastery learning a teacher must teach the students behaviors required for independence, organize the teaching materials and enrichment activities for easy access and organize teacher time for optimum effectiveness.

The most difficult of the four areas to manage is the independent practice time. During this time, teachers must provide students with various types of activities that can be done independently or in small groups without direct teacher supervision. This is NOT a time to use only ditto sheets. During this time practice pages from the math text, practice pages designed to coordinate with the skill being practiced, or games and manipulative materials may be used.

If games and manipulative materials as an effective practice time activity are going to be used there are some basic management techniques which must be followed. First, make sure all components of an activity are coded in some way to show that they belong together and assembled in a durable, easy-to-use container. Second, code activities to the skill breakdown and store or file in a central location. This makes it easy for the teacher or anyone else to pull an activity from the files or shelves that coordinate with the skill being practiced. Third, be sure to TEACH the children how to play the game or use the manipulative material before they are put out for independent use. This instruction will not only include the rules but also, how to care for the activity, how many people may use it at once, where it is to be kept, and the consequences if these behaviors are not demonstrated.

Math does not have to be a drudgery. It is FUN and EASY for children if they are given:

QUALITY INSTRUCTION

PRACTICE TO MASTERY

TIME TO MASTER

CONSISTENT REVIEW

So, if you want MATH to be YOUR BAG--FIRST, get organized!!! THEN, get going!!!

MAIN CRITERIA

1. COMPARISONS
   ___large and small
   ___tall and short
   ___heavy and light
   ___long
   ___more and less

2. POSITIONAL RELATIONSHIPS
   ___under and over
   ___top and bottom
   ___front and back
   ___high and low
   ___far and near
   ___between
   ___inside and outside

3. PATTERNING
   ___two shapes
   ___two colors
   ___three shapes
   ___three colors

4. COUNTING
   ___by 1's
   ___by 5's
   ___by 10's
   ___by 100's

5. RECOGNITION OF SETS

6. ONE TO ONE MATCHING

7. RECOGNITION OF NUMERALS AND NUMBER WORDS
   ___1 to 10
   ___11 to 50
   ___51 to 100
   ___101 to 500
   ___501 to 1000

8. FORMING AND MATCHING SETS

9. WRITING NUMERALS
   ___1 to 10
   ___11 to 50
   ___51 to 100
   ___101 to 500
   ___501 to 1000

10. NUMBER COMPARISONS
   ___before
   ___after
   ___one more
   ___one less
   ___less than
   ___more than
   ___even numbers
   ___odd numbers
   ___number patterns

11. JOINING AND SEPARATING SETS

12. ADDITION FACTS
   100 facts in 3 min.

13. SUBTRACTION FACTS
   100 facts in 3 min.

14. PLACE VALUE AND RENAMING NUMBERS
   ___ones
   ___tens
   ___hundreds
   ___thousands
   ___millions
   ___expanded notation
   ___ones tens
   ___tens hundreds
   ___hundreds thousands

15. MISSING DIGITS
   ( ) + 6 = 7
   6 + ( ) = 9
   7 - ( ) = 4
   ( ) - 5 = 3

16. ADDITION OF WHOLE NUMBERS/NO CARRYING
   ___2 digit plus 2 digit
   ___3 digit plus 3 digit
   ___3 addends

17. ADDITION OF WHOLE NUMBERS/CARRYING
   ___carrying to 10's
   ___carrying to 100's
   ___carrying to 1000's
   ___carrying to any or all places

18. SUBTRACTION OF WHOLE NUMBERS/NO BORROWING
___2 digit minus 2 digit
___3 digit minus 3 digit

19. SUBTRACTION OF WHOLE NUMBERS/BORROWING
___borrowing from 10's
___borrowing from 100's
___borrowing from 1000's
___borrowing from any or all places

20. SUBTRACTION OF WHOLE NUMBERS--BORROWING/0's

21. STORY PROBLEMS
___addition
___subtraction

22. MULTIPLICATION FACTS
100 facts in 3 min.

23. SYMBOLS
___+ ___>
___- ___□
___x ___▭
___÷ ___△
___= ___○
___<

24. ROMAN NUMERALS
___I
___V
___X
___L
___M
___combinations

25. DIVISION FACTS

26. MULTIPLICATION OF WHOLE NUMBERS
___1 digit times
___2 digit times
___3 digit times
___4 digit times

27. DIVISION OF WHOLE NUMBERS
___1 digit divisor
___2 digit divisor
___3 digit divisor

28. STORY PROBLEMS
___multiplication
___division
___mixed operations

29. FRACTIONS
___1/2 ___1/3
___1/4 ___2/3
___3/4

30. ADDITION OF FRACTIONS
___simple
___compound

31. SUBTRACTION OF FRACTIONS
___simple
___compound

32. MULTIPLICATION OF FRACTIONS
___simple
___compound

33. DIVISION OF FRACTIONS
___simple
___compound

34. DECIMAL FRACTIONS
___tenths
___hundredths
___thousandths

35. DECIMALS
___addition
___subtraction
___multiplication
___division

36. TIME
___hour
___1/2 hour
___1/4 hour
___exact time

37. METRIC MEASUREMENTS
___linear
___volume
___mass
___temp.

38. MONEY
___1¢ ___$1
___5¢ ___$5
___10¢ ___exact amount
___25¢ ___makes change
___50¢

39. MEASUREMENT OF GEOMETRIC FIGURES
- ___area
    - ___square
    - ___rectangle
    - ___triangle
    - ___circle
- ___perimeter
    - ___square
    - ___rectangle
    - ___triangle
    - ___circle
- ___angles in degrees

40. GRAPHS

interpretation and construction
- ___charts and tables
- ___pictorial
- ___bar
- ___line

41. MATHEMATICAL APPLICATIONS

42. INTEGERS
- ___positive
- ___negative

43. INEQUALITIES

44. VOCABULARY
- ___addition
- ___subtraction
- ___multiplication
- ___division
- ___metric

Scandinavian Early Learning Centers

Hala Smadi
Utah State University

The International Year of the Child helped direct the eyes of educators to successful early childhood programs around the world as models to be considered and examined and for possible answers to questions raised, or solutions to existing problems.

This paper will consider preschools and day care centers in Sweden, Denmark and Norway from published literature, and describe their auspices and models of service, their methods of delivery, the ages of children served, the types of programs, and their orientations, the staff-children ratios, and the qualifications and training of staff.

SWEDEN

Auspices of Child Service

National Level: Ministry of Health and Social Affairs

Local Level: Child Welfare Committees or Social Service Committees.

Methods of Delivery

In Sweden, the preschool system is integrated into the larger community social services system. If the applicant is other than a local authority, to set up a day care center, and receive grants and loans, one must have approval from the Child Welfare Committee.

Ages of Children Served, Types of Programs, Orientations

All programs offered to children under seven years of age come under the term "preschool". The term combines the previously used terms of "day nurseries" and "nursery schools". The distinction made today in Sweden is between full-time and part-time programs.

Full-time programs are of a duration of five hours or more a day, five days a week and part-time programs are of a duration from three to five hours a day, five days a week.

Children with special needs, the result of different kinds of handicaps, are integrated with other children and encouraged to participate in full-day programs.

The orientation of the early learning centers is a total national commitment to the well being of young children. Basic in the planning of programs is the belief that education and social care are public concerns. The education of the very young is therefore totally integrated into the social fiber of community life benefiting both children and their parents and older siblings. The preschool aims at offering each child "optimal conditions for its social, emotional, physical, and intellectual development" (Rosengren, 1973, p. 23).

Important to the program is that the child in her/his early years, establish an inner security, learn how to develop a multifaceted approach to life, intellectually and emotionally, and learn how to cooperate with others. The goal is to develop in children the capacity to approach learning in a number of ways, at their own pace. To learn to communicate with adults and children should be an experience provided for by the preschool.

TABLE I

Types of Program; Ages of Children Served; Size of Children's Group; Length of Program; Orientation of Program

Type of Program	Ages of Children	Size of Group
A. Infant Group	6 mths - 2½ yrs.	8-12 children
B. Mixed Age Sibling Group	2½ yrs. - 7 yrs.	10-20 children
C. Family Preschool Child-Minders	Temporarily sick Preschool Children	-----
D. Play Therapy	All sick preschool children at home or at hospital	-----
E. Toy Lending Service	Handicapped preschool Children	-----

Length of Program	Orientation
A. Full-time (more than five hours)	Developmental
B. Part-time (more than three hours, less than five.)	Developmental
C. -----	Municipally employed child-minders who care for the sick child at home.
D. -----	Play training for all handicapped children.
E. -----	-----

TABLE II

Staff-Children Ratios

A. Full-Day Child/Adult Ratios:
Infants: 1 adult to 4 infants
Children 2½-7 years: 1 adult to 5 children
Children with special requirements: Less than 5 children per adult.
Each Preschool: 1 head preschool teacher
2 preschool teachers per department.

B. Part-Time Child/Adult Ratios:
Children 4-5 years: 1 adult to 15 children
Children 5-6 years: 1 adult to 20 children

TABLE III

Preschool Training

Length of Training:	three years
Prerequisites:	1. 19 years of age 2. Second year of a folk high-school. 3. Previous experience in the care of infants, 16 weeks training or practical work. 4. Practical experience in a private home with children under school age for 9 weeks. 5. 16 weeks trainee work with a qualified nursery school teacher.
Theoretical Study:	Psychology, emphasizing developmental psychology and observation; Pedagogics and method; Civics; Social child care; Child psychiatry; Hygiene; Medical child care; Mental hygiene; Ethics
Practical Training:	Approximately one-half of the three year training program is devoted to practical training. State supported preschools are bound by law to take responsibility for the practical teaching of preschool teachers in return for special fees.

Research:

Since the first major commission was appointed in 1935, continual research and discussion of the problems of preschools was taking place in Sweden. In 1944, a plan was formulated for a functional residential area with a preschool designed for both full-time and part-time programs. During the forties, family day nurseries were created with consideration to parents working hours suitable to the preschool hours. With the fall of the economy the following decade, female labor opportunities fell, and coinciding with this, heated debates arose on the need for preschool, with criticism directed at their activities.

The late fifties had an upsurging of the economy, resulted in industry attempting to entice women into the labor market and redirecting the attention on the benefits of preschool programs.

In 1962, the Family Commission recommended that the term "Child Centers" replace the terms "day nurseries, nursery schools, and free-time centers," and that the state support the child centers financially. In 1964, the state grants were raised and altered to stimulate local authorities to expand full-day child centers. The 1967 Family Commission proposed that child centers be adapted to modern community and that alternative forms of child-minding facilities be expanded. It recommended greater availability of play and allied materials, research on preschool children, establishment of demonstration and experimental child centers, pedagogic consultants, psychologists specializing in young children, centers for children with special requirements and cooperation with parents and collaboration with the school system.

As a proposal of the Commission of the Seventies, the Minister for Family Affairs brought about a directive to consider the internal and external activities of preschool, propose pedagogic programs forthe preschool, with suggestions for the municipalities to expand their number, to consider the needs of children with special requirements, and to focus on the activities offered to children of school age.

As a result, the proposals were that beginning in 1975, a general preschool, minimum of three hours a day, five days a week be offered to all six-year olds. The children with physical, social, mental, linguistic, or emotional requirements have access to preschool from four years of age. The children of student parents or gainfully employed parents be offered full preschool placement, according to need.

It was also proposed that parents receive a sickness benefit of ten days per year per family to offset the difficulties that arise to child and parents when temporary illness occurs in a family. It was also proposed that in addition child minders be attached to specific preschools, to move into the home of the child when illness occurs, the cost to be calculated into the operating budget of the full-day preschool programs. Where there is a demand for night activities for preschools, such service was offered and studied. Preschool attendance and its effects on parents and children should be examined.

The Swedish preschool must be viewed within the larger concept of town organization. Its relationship to education and social policies which are the Social Service Committee, Education Committee, Recreation Committee, Arts Committee, Child Health Organizations, parents and staff organizations and unions, the local police force, and youth organizations is vital and continuous. A continuity between the preschool and school activites must exist, maintaining an intensive continual dialogue. Joint study sessions for preschool and school staff take place. On the local level, consultative groups are to form to foster cooperation on the grass roots level.

A vigorous debate took place on the shared role of the father-husband in his responsibility for the care of children, and household activities. In doing this, it is anticipated that men will be enabled to further their emotional potential.

For sparsely populated areas, mobile preschools were proposed. The latest research cited as taking place in 1975 examines the significance of the role preschools can play in the adjustment of the immigrant child, and his family in the community.

The training of staff has been under examination with a proposal that suggests a system of alternating courses of study with work, each a basic step for the next in the educational ladder. Education of staff will focus in the future on educating children through sibling groups, parent cooperation, and staff team approach.

DENMARK

Auspices of Child Service

National Level: Ministry of Social Affairs for Nursery Schools-Kindergartens

Local Level: Nursery School-Kindergarten Municipal Authorities, Local municipal folkskole for preschools.

Models of Service and Methods of Delivery

A distinction is made between nursery schools-kindergartens, and preschools in Denmark. Nursery schools-kindergartens come under the auspices of the Ministry of Social Affairs, and may be municipal, self-owning, or private programs. Funding is from the state, the municipal authorities, and the parents. Preschool classes are under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, and are located in the local municipal school. It is free. Some private primary schools have preschools attached to them, and there fees are paid.

Ages of Children Served; Types of Programs; Orientation

From birth to seven years, children are served in the following institutions:

Vuggestuer:	Day Nurseries for Children 0-3 years.
Bornehauer:	Nursery Schools-Kindergartens for Children 3-7 years.
Legesteder:	Premises for play for children 3-7 years
Bovnehaveklasser:	Preschool classes for children 5-7 years

There are part-time and full-time programs in nursery schools-kindergarten. The full-time, all day programs have developed from the nineteenth century orphanages which served the children of full-time labor parents. The part-time programs are the continuation of the programs when parents of the privileged background realized the benefit of children being under the supervision and care of specially educated persons.

The Danish nursery school-kindergarten programs have the objectives of supplementing and supporting the children's home lives, and offering education according to the individual need and age of the child concerned. There are two types of grouping. family group, i.e. children of different ages grouped together, and separate age groups. The size of a separate age-group division is from 12-20 children.

The daily activities which stimulate the child are based on the psychological and educational knowledge of Erikson, Piaget, and Maspero. Daily programs consist of free indoor and outdoor play, activities with clay, wood, paint, textiles, paper and things of the children's creations, singing and playing with primitive musical instruments, reading stories, and conversations. A mid-day meal is served with milk and fruit. Those who spend long hours have a rest. The daily routine is organized by the teacher in such a way so that each child is offered the optimal environment for developing her/his mind and body. The parents cooperate with the nursery school-kindergarten staff by assuming leadership positions on the boards and parent council assisting the process of decision making.

As previously stated the preschool classes of the public school system are established upon demonstrated need and parent demand. Space for them is made available in private and public schools. The classes are of a duration of three hours a day, five days a week and must never exceed 22 children. The programs planned foster social development, cooperation and consideration for others, as well as fulfill the immediate needs of the children. There are daily activities that develop motor coordination and train the senses. Play, singing, dancing, art projects, storytelling and dramatics are part of the everyday program. Special health services, teachers observations, and reports help screen any ailments or physical defects.

Staff-Children Ratios

Exact staff-children ratios vary in Denmark. A nurseryschool-kindergarten group will vary from 12-20 children according to age, while a preschool class will not exceed 22 children. As an example, the children's center at the University hospital at Odensee, which is open six days a week from 6:30 a.m. to 6:30 p.m., the following ratios existed:

2-3 years	10 children - 1 teacher, 1 aide, 1 part-time person
3-4 years	14 children - 1 teacher, 1 aide
4-5 years	16 children - 1 teacher, 1 aide
5-6 years	9 children - 1 teacher, 1 aide

The children's center has a large outdoor area to play in, a large muscle activities room that doubles as a rest room, a carpentry room, a large bathroom, cloakroom, kitchen, in addition to an individual activities room for each age group.

TABLE I

Training of Teachers

Length of Training:	Three years
Prerequisites:	1. The completion of secondary education, (a pass in all subjects is not necessary) OR The acquiring of a basic education in another way. 2. The completion of 4-6 months practical work in an institution for children. 3. Sufficient maturity.
Theoretical Study:	Psychology, Educational Philosophy, History, Teaching Practice, Social and Medical Subjects, Family Theory, Civics of Social Science, Social Legislation, Social Medicine, Creative and Artistic Activities, Music, Singing and Rhythmics, Gymnastics, Music Appreciation, Biology, Children's Books, Speech.
Practical Training:	Observation, regular educational practice, Special practice with a child with special needs, or a special educational subject.

Students on training are given fifty percent representation on boards concerning curriculum and financing.

Throughout the three year period, personal development is the most emphasized part. The teacher is considered the most important educational tool, therefore, every trainee must come to know her strength and limitations, both professionally and personally. She is placed in a continuous situation where there is an interplay among children, and adults and children. The trainees are expected to be adaptable and open to the constant changes because their future roles could be those of counselor, mediator, and coordinator. The training ends with an examination, which is the evaluation of the student's attainment in the aims set up for her.

Research

The most recent research undertaken in 1975, as mentioned in literature at the Froebelseminariet in Copenhagen, is the study of social attitudes influencing preschool education, methods of training preschool teachers, and methods and materials appropriate for preschool setting. Throughout Denmark, that same year, there was deliberation on how best to plan a day, a week, a month's activities, with attention on the work of F. Maspero, Travail du Peuple.

Much debate has centered around whether greater emphasis should be placed on intellectual or social development. The debate has led to a deliberate attempt to combine both by stimulating the child's oral and conceptual development as well as fostering emotional security and social adaptation.

The trend towards family age groups helped further the integration of children with handicaps with the other children. Facilities for leisure time activities are integrated with settings for children under school age. When the child's parent is hospitalized, some facilities for day-time care are being equipped for care of children on a full-time basis.

Twenty percent of Denmark's preschool teachers are male. There are social changes occurring at the same time. The family structure is undergoing change, with an increase in urbanization, and thus apartment living. Immense expansion of places in preschool settings is projected for the future.

NORWAY

Auspices of Child Service

National Level: Ministry of Consumer Affairs and Government Administration, Department of Family and Consumer Affairs.

Local Level: Board of Child Welfare

Models of Service and Methods of Delivery

Day care centers for children six months to seven years of age are open from eight in the morning to five in the evening on weekdays and Saturdays. There is no evening care, or Sunday care. Parents get children from school after working hours, and attend parent meetings as often as possible and may prepare their children's breakfast and send it to school. "Park aunts" care for children in parks four hours per week in good weather. Children bring their own lunches to park. Play schools are open five hours per week to preschoolers. A private Housewife Society, made up of nurses and kindergarten teachers, who have children of their own offer care for four children per home. These house mothers are supported and guided by three inspectors from the Family and Consumer Division, and a Health Department employee.

The earlier methods of care were based on the developmental approach of Froebel, Montessori and Gesell. Nowadays the developmental approach of Erikson and Piaget are more prominent. There is an absence of Bereiter-Engleman approach.

Ages of Children Served

Children are in either separate age groups from:

Six months to one and one-half years
One and one-half years to three years
Five years to seven years

Or in integrated age groups from:

One and one-half years to five years
Three years to seven years

Children eat in school one school-prepared meal a day plus what they bring from home with them. Under three years of age, they get one hot meal a day. Over three years old, children get a cold lunch of dark bread, cheese, liver paste, milk, fruit, tomatoes and cod liver oil. Infants and toddlers have beds for sleeping, and there are facilities for other children who may need or desire a rest during the day.

TABLE I

Staff-Children Ratios

8 infants: 1 teacher, 1 baby nurse, 1 half-day helper
8 toddlers: 1 teacher, 1 baby nurse, 1 half-day helper
15 three to five-year-olds: 1 teacher, 1 assistant, 1 baby nurse, or paid helper
15 five to seven-year-olds: 1 teacher, 1 assistant, usually a mother or person who wants some practice teaching before she goes into preschool teacher training.

TABLE II

Teacher Training

Length of Training:	Three years
Prerequisites:	1. The completion of secondary education 2. One year compulsory practice teaching prior to entering.
Theoretical Study:	Educational Psychology, Child Psychology, Methods of Working with Young Children, Mental Hygiene, Creativity, Arts & Crafts, Norwegian Language, Children's Literature, First Aid, Road Safety, Skiing, Swimming, Winter Play Projects.
Practical Training:	Eight weeks per year. Year I devotes time to observation and assisting. Year II the student is responsible for one '3 week' activity in the center every season. Year III the trainee exchanges leadership roles.

Research

Research on day care is being conducted by pedagogue students at the Pedagogical Institute, Oslo University. The information available on the subject comes from the Moore, Kordenbrock, Moore analysis on European Preschools and Child Care (November/December, 1976) It states that Norway is turning away from preschools and kindergartens for children whose parent(s) can stay home to take care of them. However, since some parents cannot or will not take care of their children, the state has kept day care open as an option, staffed by both professionals and paraprofessionals. The ratio of adult to child is about 1 to 4½ children.

Conclusion

In all three Scandinavian countries, the ratio of children per adult is getting to be the lowest in the world (Moore, et al. 1976, p. 69) The difference among the three countries lies in their philosophy. Denmark and Sweden provide their early center to accommodate working parents and induce them to send their children to the centers, while Norwegians choose the ideology that the home is more productive in the earlier years. The three countries represent a high standard of living for their small populations. The governments are highly socialistic and cater to the needs of the working mothers by publicly financed child care. The education for the very young is totally integrated into the social fabric of community life with the school buildings within 500 meters (1/3 mile) of community housing. The day care is considered the hub for the neighborhood, and custodial care is the smallest part of it.

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DEVELOPING LEVELS OF THINKING IN YOUNG CHILDREN

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> "Mind is the ruler of the universe," wrote Plato. The greatest power in the world is the dynamic energy of thought. Mankind creates the world it lives in with the thoughts it thinks. Skyscrapers, bridges, automobiles, airplanes and all other inventions and developments were ideas in the minds of men before they became realities. The course of history follows the stream of human thought. Our past is the creation of our past thinking. Our present is based on the quality of our thinking up to this moment. Our future depends upon the thoughts we think from now on. We change our world by changing our minds!
>
> -- W. A. Peterson

The purpose of this paper is to explore the possibilities for developing critical thinking skills in young children by asking a specific set of questions; each set of questions to be at one of the seven levels of thinking. (See list on next page.)

By improving and developing critical thinking skills in children, success in any of the content areas taught today in the educational system should be greatly improved. The successful teaching of any subject is directly related to the ability to teach skills in thinking.

Using the content area of science, we may demonstrate the possible questions and techniques used to improve and develop critical thinking skills in young children. The whole "scientific approach" is based on the ability to use different levels of thinking in identifying a problem, stating a logical belief about that problem, developing a testable hypothesis, and recognizing and stating in understandable terms the conclusions.

Young children are naturally curious about the world around them, making them highly motivated and eager to explore their world. The curriculum of science then becomes a natural vehicle for us to use in developing a set of questions for our different thinking levels. We can find a wealth of subject material around the school or even in our own backyard!

The conceptual structure is based around these seven levels of thinking proposed by Dr. Jay Monson, Utah State University.

Levels of Thinking
by
Dr. Jay A. Monson

1. Memory: The learner recalls or recognizes information.
2. Translation: The learner changes information into a different symbolic form of language. Puts it in his own words.
3. Interpretation: The learner discovers relationships among facts, generalizations, definitions, values, and skills. Compares.
4. Application: The learner solves a lifelike problem that requires the identification of the issue and the selection and use of appropriate

generalizations and skills.

5. Analysis: The learner solves a problem in the light of conscious knowledge of the parts and forms of thinking.
6. Synthesis: The learner solves a problem that requires original, creative thinking.
7. Evaluation: The learner makes a judgment of good or bad, right or wrong, according to standards he/she designates.

Each level builds upon the ones preceeding it so that the highest level, evaluation, includes all lower kinds of thought plus that which is solely evaluation. Therefore the memory process is part of every other kind of thinking.

Questions about a specific subject in science are posed at the seven different levels, each building on the ones coming before.

The objective for the teacher will be to learn questioning techniques on each level of thinking and to be able to use it in developing materials and questions in all subjects.

The objectives for the child will be to learn the questioning process and ultimately be able to ask himself the questions on all levels of thinking and give reasonable answers to the questions based on the child's maturity level.

It is necessary to preassess the level of thinking at which the child can respond comfortably. This may be determined by asking questions geared at each level of thinking and continuing until the child has some hesitency in his answering. It is very important to accept the child's answers and not expect adult responses.

Many learning activities and subjects for inquiry are easily accessible. Some things readily available in school yards or back yards might include:

1. Grass
2. Trees
3. Shrubs
4. Flowers
5. Weeds
6. Garden Plants
7. Insects
8. Spiders
9. Moths
10. Butterflies
11. Worms
12. Garden Snakes
13. Lizards
14. Chipmunks
15. Gophers
16. Moles
17. Mice
18. Rabbits
19. Birds
20. Rocks
21. Soil
22. Water
23. Weather
24. Seasons
25. Sun
26. Stars
27. Moon
28. Living Communities
29. Ecology
30. Erosion
31. Minerals
32. Dogs
33. Cats
34. Other Pets

A self-test may be given by using the materials developed by the teacher. The child should find, match, compare and contrast the materials with his real environment. He may try to recreate on paper what he has observed outside or he may role-play the characteristics he has observed.

The thinking process cannot call for exact answers on some levels of thinking because they call for original thinking on the child's part. Therefore, if it is desired that specific answers be given, further research and learning opportunities must be offered to the child if he is interested in more information. The teacher may, however, conduct a post-test with the questions used in the original learning activities but with some variation. The post-test is really a discussion session in which the teacher and child recall what was observed and where the child may have further interest which should be explored.

Henry Ford once said, "Thinking is the hardest work there is, which is the probable reason why so few engage in it." And, I would like to add, "Which is why so few teachers teach it!"

SAMPLE QUESTIONING

Trees

Pre-test: Describe a tree

Levels of Questions:

1.0 Knowledge

- 1.1 What does it look like?
- 1.2 What color is it?
- 1.3 Can it move?
- 1.4 How big is it?
- 1.5 Is it hard or soft or both?
- 1.6 Is it living?

2.0 Translation

- 2.1 Can you stand like a tree?
- 2.2 How does a tree look in the wind? Show me?
- 2.3 Can you draw a picture of a tree?
- 2.4 Can you tell me what a tree is?

3.0 Interpretation

- 3.1 How does this tree look like the picture on this card?
- 3.2 How does it look different?
- 3.3 How are trees alike?
- 3.4 How are trees different?
- 3.5 Are trees more like ants or flowers?

4.0 Application

- 4.1 Would a tree rather live by a lake or in the desert?

4.2 Where would you live if you were a tree?

4.3 What kind of tree would you be?

4.4 How does the tree eat? Or does it?

5.0 Analysis

5.1 What do you need to make a tree?

5.2 Do you think that a tree needs sunlight?

5.3 How many parts does a tree have? Which is the most important?

5.4 How do trees die?

6.0 Synthesis

6.1 What would you do if you were a hungry and thirsty tree?

6.2 What animals would you let live inside your branches?

6.3 If you were a tree and wanted to visit your grandparents, what would you do?

7.0 Evaluation

7.1 What is the best tree? Why?

7.2 Would you like to be a tree? Why?

7.3 Are trees good or bad? Why?

7.4 What should we do when trees die?

Student Test: Using a picture, find other trees in the area not discussed and match them to the picture.

Post-Test: A discussion session having child retell what he has learned about trees, what he still wants to know about trees, and how he can transfer specific learning and thinking to other trees and other subjects.

THE POSITIVE EFFECTS OF MEN IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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"No developing society," according to Margaret Mead, "that needs men to leave home and do their thing for the society ever allows young men in to handle or touch their newborns. There is always a taboo against it. For they know somewhere if they did the new fathers would become so "hooked" that they would never get out and do their thing properly."[1]

One of the most rewarding outcomes of the growing Men's Liberation Movement in North America is that increasing numbers of men drawn from all socio-economic groups ARE becoming "hooked" on children--participating in their lives on all levels on a day-to-day basis.

Fathers are seeking to be equal partners in the parenting team. Flexible working hours are allowing fathers to be at home with their children longer periods of time and in many cases, fathers are experiencing a new role of "househusbands." Divorced men are gaining custoday of their children and single men are adopting children. Grandfathers, many of whom never enjoyed involvement with their own children other than on the most superficial level, are now "discovering" their grandchildren.

Men are also entering the field of early childhood education as teachers, aides, administrators, volunteers and foster grandfathers. For the first time educational researchers are conducting in-depth research focusing on the roles of men interacting with children as parents and early childhood educators.

As with any change of attitudes and endeavors by members of society, some problems and resistance can be expected. The phenomenon of men entering this field of early childhood education is no exception (Milgram and Sciarra discuss some of these problems in their article, "Male Preschool Teacher: The Realities of Acceptance").[2] The objective of this paper, however, is to briefly present some of the positive benefits the field of education, children and society in general will derive.

Traditionally, men have appeared on the educational scene on the high school and college level as administrators, guidance counselors and teachers of "masculine-type" courses such as physical education, vocational training, business administration and occasionally history and English. Men on the elementary school level were also principals, physical education teachers, custodians and in some cases teachers of the 5th and 6th grades. This certainly was the case when I taught on New York's Upper West Side in the 1960's.

Although I have always enjoyed associating with young children, I think I first became "hooked" on young children while teaching sixth grade. I found myself "visiting" the kindergarten classes during my free periods and lunch hours. Noting my interest in the younger children, a wonderful kindergarten teacher suggested that we establish an "exchange program" between her class and mine. The entire experience of inter-class visiting, field trips and sharing meals together was truly exciting and rewarding for all concerned: children, aides, teachers and parents. I recall that my sixth grade boys displayed far more enthusiasm for the program than did the girls. In retrospect, this might have been the first time some of the boys were able to interact with children in an environment that encouraged gentleness and sensitivity. The girls, on the other hand, more or less knew they were destined to become homemakers and suddenly found themselves having to deal with nurturing experiences in sixth grade.

Men first started teaching in early childhood classrooms in the late 1960's and their numbers have been increasing ever since. Traditionally, early childhood textbooks and books discussing child development and parenting always referred to teachers and parents as "she" -- giving only superficial mention of the father figure. Recognition of the role of the father and the male teacher in the lives of young children began to appear in the mid 1960's in such books as: THE FATHER: HIS ROLE IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT,[3] WHO WILL RAISE THE CHILDREN?,[4] THE ROLE OF THE FATHER IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT,[5] and FATHERING.[6] Today many fine books focusing on fathering are available such as EXPECTANT FATHER.[7] Unfortunately, less material is presently available for the male teacher, although books discussing career choices and early childhood texts now depict in photographs men and women interacting with children and the pronoun, "she," is used less frequently.

Perhaps the most positive effect of men entering the field is that they themselves are looking upon their chosen profession with pride and they recognize that as male teachers of young children, they are contributing as much to the mainstream of society as corporate leaders, engineers, sanitation workers or plumbers.

In a society that has always demanded men to be "in control" of themselves, others and all situations, male teachers -- in addition to many fathers and men in general -- have gained an awareness that the need not always be the givers, the controllers, the mediators and protectors. They recognize that they can learn from others -- especially their wives, friends, female colleagues and children. Children can share their "spiritual gifts": a sense of awe and wonder, healing touch, hope, hospitality and a greater attentiveness to feelings than adults often show.[8]

As a former day care teacher, I can relate personally to this. On the morning of my 42nd birthday I was working with my group of children. I was feeling a bit depressed and lonely and the morning seemed interminable. I felt that I was not reaching the children. My "slump" continued on into lunch hour. Suddenly, I heard giggles and singing behind my back and turning around I saw a child walking into the room carrying one whole wheat cupcake complete with a candle with many of the other children following with cards they had made for me -- all singing me a happy birthday. Each child kissed me sharing their love and laughter with me. I was deeply touched and certainly "uplifted."

As men mainstream into the lives of children as both teachers in infant-toddler and early childhood centers, children are discovering that their teachers can either be men or women. Also men entering the field are beginning to dispel the common criticism, "...the school is too much a woman's world governed by woman's rules and standards."[9]

Male and female teaching staffs project a more realistic, non-sexist world to children -- one that is certainly more human. Children learn faster today. They are very sensory-motor and symbol-oriented and as they observe their teachers cooperatively and creatively interchanging roles -- displaying a mutual respect for each other's contributions and for each other personally -- they believe what they see and emulate these roles and attitudes in their own "work-play."

Biller[10] suggests yet another positive effect of men working in early childhood education. "Men and women in the classroom could help each other understand better the different socialization experiences of males and females and contribute to a lessening of sexrole stereotypes." Certainly the increase of men in attendance at both state and national educational conferences enables men and women from various geographic areas of the country to learn and share with each other -- discussing concerns, ideas and anticipated goals for educational programs.

Because their thinking and logic is rigid, children need to see men in the classroom who display role models of men who can either cry or be strong; who can be either competitive or sympathetic or who can either nurture a baby or repair a broken fence. Boys, especially, who experience either paternal absence or paternal inadequacy may pattern their behavior after super hero-types depicted by media, athletes or fictional heros -- therefore, further perpetuating traditional masculine images. Exposure to men who project a more humanly balanced image and whose body language is softer and less threatening offers boys a positive, male role model to emulate.

In addition to enriching the learning environment of early childhood with their interests in carpentry, physical games and other adventurous activities, men are also bringing to the classroom their interests in cooking, photography, music and more passive interests such as reinforcing social graces, reading, listening to music or lovingly holding children. Some males do not yet feel quite comfortable with these less active activities -- not to mention involvement with children in doll play and other related dramatic play activities. I feel the most meaningful way a man can learn to be comfortable with doll play would be to simply join the children and allow them to be the "givers" joining them in their delightful conversations and nurturing activities centered on their "doll children." Before too long the teacher will find himself so involved learning "from" the children that with each subsequent play time, he will feel increasingly more comfortable with the activity.

In addition, male teachers are gaining a recognition of the mutually rewarding skill of listening not only to the children -- but also to their female colleagues and to the parents thereby relinquishing "control" of conversations and divesting themselves of the predominately male characteristic Farrell describes as "self-listeners."[11]

The presence of men on the staff makes the once female dominated school environment more inviting to fathers who wish to observe and participate. Administrators and staffs are actively encouraging fathers and grandfathers to join in school experiences on whatever level they choose such as sharing special interests, discussing their jobs or interacting with the children in groups or individually. Attitudes of many mothers concerning their own roles, those of their husbands and children are also being affected by male involvement in school activities, the low-keyed interactions of the staff and changing attitudes of the children. Visitors are also observing the development of more human environments in schools and are carrying the word out into the community.

It is also gratifying to note that more and more staff members, parents and members of the community are able to discuss a school staff indicating that the school has, for example, six good teachers -- rather than, "five good teachers and one man."

Although most male teachers appear to be in their twenties, men in their thirties and forties are joining staffs -- overcoming not only the social stigma of not working at higher paying jobs, but also peer pressures discouraging work with young children. The traditionally low salaries in early childhood certainly have not attracted men who must either support themselves or their families. As men enter the field, however, and as women seek equal status in the community -- including equal pay -- the entire issue of upgrading salaries is receiving long overdue attention. NOTE: Parents need to be reeducated to realize that they will have to pay higher tuitions in order to have professionally trained school staffs. In addition, as higher salaries are paid, teachers and administrators will be held accountable for maintaining their professional training.

Grandparents -- epsecially grandfathers -- along with senior citizens, tragically neglected over the past few decades, are now also being mainstreamed into the lives of young children. In addition to encouraging biological grandparents to join school activities, programs are being developed centering on foster grandparent exchanges with local old age homes and children are also being taken to visit old people in hospital nursing homes. It has been a most rewarding experience for me to accompany children on trips to old age homes. Here again, the children saw the male model being gentle and encouraging them to talk kindly and softly and to warmly touch and be loving to the older people. For many of the children, it was the first time they had experienced interactions with older people and many hours of interesting discussions subsequently developed at school. I always shared with the children that our very presence with our older friends was a beautiful gift and that we could give of ourselves through our songs, warmth and love.

Older persons are also volunteering in elementary schools -- both on the upper and lower levels -- across the nation.[12] I spent a delightful morning recently observing Matthew Barish, a grandfather who does not see his own grandchildren too often, enthusiastically sharing with a public school kindergarten class on New York's Upper West Side. Barish, one of 4,000 volunteers in New York's schools, post observation comments further reinforced the need for men in the lives of children. "There is a tremendous relationship between myself and the younsters. I get more hugs and kisses from the boys because for many its the first time they have had a male who gives them attention, love and affection. Boys have been overwhelmed by the female role in the schools for so many years and there is a need in the volunteer program for older men. Fathers come in and say, 'Isn't it nice a man is coming and paying attention to my child.' I feel men should take a more important role in taking care of their children. Business is not the important thing -- it is human relationships that are important."

Yet another positive effect of men in early childhood is that many men who work with young children also instruct related college courses -- thereby indicating to college and high school administrators and counselors that men are now positively contributing to the field of early childhood education. Many men who do instruct such courses, however, must overcome tremendous social pressures from their male peers and society. A case in point would be a colleague of mine who is Mexican-American and grew up in a blue collar, macho-oriented industrial, Northern California town. He now teaches children and college students in the early childhood department of the local community college. He was initially regarded with skepticism by his peers and members of the community. He persisted, however, designing a special child development course for fathers, "Daddy's Home," which is now enthusiastically attended by many local men.

I have noted initial dismay and occasional resentment expressed by some females entering my college courses. For many it was the first time they had had contact with a man in the field. It was my experience, however, that with patience and understanding on my part, and with a genuine interest to understand the role of men in infant care and early childhood, most women after considerable thought, discussion and personal field observations, recognized the need for men in the field. In fact, I am happy to report that many of these initially skeptical women subsequently and enthusiastically recruited qualified men for their own staffs.

Finally, high schools are now slowly beginning to encourage young male students to participate in home economics and child development courses. Since a growing number of high schools now have their own day care centers, male students for the first time have an "on site" opportunity to interact with young children. Hopefully, before too long elementary schools will encourage their upper and lower grade teachers to design exchange programs similar to the one I was so fortunate to participate in.

It is both exciting and encouraging to witness men exposing the heretofore blindly accepted "myths" of masculinity -- developing their own inner-resources and also to witness men becoming involved in the lives of children both as fathers, grandfathers, teachers and volunteers. Men who interact and share with young children are providing both boys and girls with a soundly needed "extra dimension." As men and women develop effective, caring, working relationships with each other and children, they are setting the "ripple effect" into motion which will ultimately benefit our entire society -- progressing us all one step closer to a "human liberation" for all "humankind."

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GUIDING THE CHILD'S EMERGING SELF-CONCEPT

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It is generally accepted that a positive self-concept is basic to all aspects of development and learning! For this reason early childhood educators and researchers demonstrate continued interest in the area of self-concept. However, to this point the focus of self-concept evaluation and study has been concerned with adolescents with a limited effort directed toward children of elementary school-age and younger. The self-concept of young children is somewhat like Mark Twain said about the weather, "There is much interest and talk about it, but nothing is done to change it." Unlike the weather, something *can* be done to affect positive self-concept development in young children. While it is true that once the self-concept is established, it is much more difficult to alter or effect change, nevertheless, much can be done to guide the young child's emerging self-concept.

Language plays an important role in the developmental stages of self-concept as does awareness or recognition of ones' attributes and abilities.

Self-awareness begins early in a child's life as is demonstrated by the egocentric behavior of the toddler. Recently a young California mother was taking her two young children to visit grandparents in Utah. The mother enthusiastically tried to get Michael, age three and Amy, age two, involved in the preparations by saying, "Come and help so Mikie can go to Utah and Amy can go to Utah and Mommie can go to Utah to see grandma and grandpa." To which little Amy replied, "Amy no go *You*tah, Amy go *Me*tah to see 'papa'." Parents might do well to encourage this type of "me" talk and action as a beginning influence of self-awareness.

At this point, it may be helpful to identify some areas of consideration for parents and teachers who guide the young child's emerging self-concept. First, it is important to recognize what constitutes a positive self-concept. Subsequent consideration may well be directed towards ways to evaluate self-concept level. And finally, ideas need to be generated to insure that the majority of experiences in which children are engaged produce success. Obvious barriers which prevent establishing positive self-concept are indifference demonstrated by teachers and parents coupled with continuous exposure to negative situations or repeated failures experienced by children. Such circumstances cannot help but limit feelings of positive self-worth.

DEFINITIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT

First then, let us attempt to define self-concept and recognize this is not a simple task. Often the terms self-concept, self-esteem and self-worth are used interchangeably. Some writers suggest that self-concept refers to physical make-up and appearance, personal attitudes, perceptions, values, relationships and opinions which a person holds about himself.[2,3,4,5,6] Other writers indicate self-esteem results from how one views himself, how others view him, friends, family or peers, or how well he can perform in comparison to others.[7,8,9,10] With some caution then, we may say self-concept refers to an individual's idea of who he is while self-esteem becomes subsumed in self-concept as the worth or value dimension.

Self-concept has been further defined by McCandless as, "a set of expectancies, plus evaluations of the areas or behaviors with reference to which these expectancies are held."[11] As an individual accumulates a reportoire of experiences in a given area, he or she begins to formulate ideas or perceptions of what one is "really" like. Let me illustrate with an example from my past experience. Years ago in Portland, Oregon, as an unseasoned but enthusiastic teacher I commenced what has turned out to be a long career of working with both young children and teachers in training. I was assigned a first grade in a new school adjacent to a rapidly developing middle income residential section of the city. Because there were still problems of school boundaries to be worked out, I was confronted with 46 bright, although bewildered six-year-olds, that is, 45 six-year-olds and one not yet five who had slipped in with the confusion. I was notified at the outset, by both parents and the previous kindergarten teacher, that Sam was subject to violent temper tantrums, Pamela would cry because her mother was not allowed to remain with her and that Tom was so precociously inquisitive I should keep all gadgets out of reach so he could not disassemble or break manipulative objects. In addition, there was Marie who was very accident prone and should be guarded. When we were assembled on the rug for our first reading of the "Biggest Bear", Pam started to cry for her mother, Tom proudly presented me with a handful of metal pieces that had once been a pocket watch and said, "Look, teacher, the 'motor' fell out," then Sam arched his back and started banging his head on the floor. At that moment, the teacher from the next room appeared at the door to notify me that Marie had just smashed two fingers in the restroom door and she needed attention. In desperation, I shrieked for everyone to be quiet, and not to move or breathe--then, clumsily I tried to take care of each crisis.

Each of these children was contributing to what has been designated as a history of experience from which future expected behaviors are derived and surely add to the building of one's self-concept. The expectations of their behaviors had been clearly predicted and they responded accordingly.

SELF-CONCEPT COMPONENTS

For purposes of gaining insight into the contributing components of self-concept let us identify what I have defined as three experience categories. It should be noted that each area is not clearly dichotomized but rather there exists interfacing with focal aspects which allow for groupings of the various facets. Emotional state is the label given to the first dimension or behavior area. Representing both ends of the continuum experience situations of this component effect feelings of happiness, sadness, contentment, anger, security, anxiety, fearfulness, ecstacy, misery and uneasiness. While it is true that the reality of life and living produces both negative and positive experiences, we should insure that young children especially are not continually exposed to an over proportion of negative situations. Teachers of young children can and do provide an appreciable number of daily activities that benefit a child's sense of emotional stability. Likewise the home setting can offer an atmosphere conducive to a pleasant or contented emotional state. Indeed it seems there is a greater tendency for young children to be happy rather than unhappy but how soon this tendency is lost if parents and teachers do not make a deliberate effort to avert such a tragedy.

Recently a father expressed his concerns about his seven-year old daughter. He related that as a toddler at two, and on to three and four years of age, this child had been almost "too precious" to describe. She seemed to be bubbling over with happiness and warmth. She was able to attract attention and admiration from all who came on her path.

Now at seven, she was exactly opposite. Most of the time she was extremely unhappy, her vivaciousness and enthusiasm for life seemed very dim. The sadness and unresponsiveness of this once vibrant child gives good cause for parents' concern.

The obvious question to be asked is what ever happened to cause such a change? It need not have been a traumatic experience or even a major crisis to effect such a complete turnabout. Very often, without deliberate attempt to do so, parents and/or significant others cut off positive verbal feedback and start sending the type of messages that cause the child to evaluate this new found self differently and indeed creates unhappy or uncomfortable feelings about the self.

Specific suggestions of how to avoid the loss of a positive, happy emotional state are presented in the final portion of this paper.

Skill competence is the second component contributing to self-concept. Aspects of this area relate to an individual's perceived ability to do - both physically and intellectually. Experience situations include problem solving, asking and answering questions or obtaining and giving information and ideas, manipulating toys and self in motor skills, fulfilling routine chores, along with many other task completion activities. Skill development in a general sense, is of great importance to the young child. Ability to do is essential to a positive self-concept. Every child should have the opportunity to experience success or achievement in at least one area. Again there is ample opportunity for teachers and parents of young children to provide experiences that will result in skill development.

I would like to relate two personal examples of efforts to enhance skills and the results. When our boys were younger, beginning at about the time they were two and five years, we made it a practice to play number games as we would ride in the car, wait for doctor appointments, or prepare to go to bed. Over a period of time both boys became very proficient at adding and subtracting series of numbers as well as other abstract problem solving. By the time our second boy was six or seven he could add the amount of purchases at the store (including tax) before the clerk had them rung up on the cash register. This skill provided a source of satisfaction not only for him but his parents as well. His competence with math continues to be a dominant aspect of his concept of self.

The second example is concerned with our daughter's motor skill ability or perhaps I should say deficiency. It was in a parent conference with Ann's kindergarten teacher that we were told our daughter was "doing as well as could be expected under the circumstances - not being able to skip, catch a ball nor jump the rope very well." Needless to say we as parents were very dismayed that our "pride and joy" was failing "P.E." in kindergarten. We determined that perhaps her deficiency was compounded by the fact that neither of her parents had expertise in the physical skills area. Thus we obtained assistance from those who had such competencies in order to provide some degree of success in this very crucial area of development.

The third dimension or component of self-concept deals with behavior or appropriate actions which primarily pertain to social interaction and getting along with others. This area, again identifying both ends of the continuum, includes perceived acceptance, perference to interact with peers and ability to relate to significant adults, along with gregariousness, shyness, distructive aggressiveness, "naughtiness", or acts of sharing, taking turns, and showing concern for others.

A number of years ago I had an opportunity to work with an unusual group of five-year-olds. These children were so well endowed with abilities and attributes in the behavioral dimension that our experience together provided many beautiful examples of children's social competence. One afternoon out on the play yard Debbie and Amy had placed two large wood crates against the play yard wall and were standing upon them in order to observe the construction of the new library on the other side of the wall. As the two strutted back and forth on their improvised viewing stand they made comments about the operation of the large construction machinery. Soon they noted Becky coming to join them. Both Amy and Debbie spread out their legs and arms and taunted, "Becky, you can't come up here - we're up here." Becky backed away for a moment, then took a firm stance and looking squarely at the two girls, with her hands on her hips, very precisely announced, "Amy and Debbie, Heavenly Father sent us here to share - now please move over, I'm coming up." Amy and Debbie glanced at each other with an "Oh, then that's alright" kind of expression and quickly moved over to make a place for Becky. It is evident that even at the young age of four or five years individuals are engaged in associations that contribute greatly to building or limiting social competence.

These three dimensions: Emotional state, competence, and behavior are those determined by this writer to be more significant components of self-concept. My experiences with young children further leads me to believe that teachers can create settings that will be conducive to enhancing each of these dimensions.

Because the "teacher" (whether it be parent or professionally trained instructor) is the most important single factor in determining the effect of early learning experiences upon young children, we must look to teacher behavior or characteristics as the basis for a positive experience. As Urie Bronfenbrenner recently stated, "every child should spend a substantial amount of time with somebody who's crazy about him."[12] Even if there are others (and you know that parents are doing a good job), let that "someone" also be the teacher.

To whatever extent of time during a day that the child is under the care and keeping of the teacher there should be positive regard and supportive teaching behavior exhibited. Although it is sometimes difficult to define love, warmth, or support it is observable--you know it when it's happening. One day I walked into a kindergarten class that seemed replete with specific teacher behaviors that could be directly related to both initiating learning and establishing self-worth in young children. The teacher was sitting down with her little flock of children gathered close around her and as each child had opporutnity to express himself either for the purpose of obtaining or sharing information or demonstrating an accomplishment she extended a reassuring hand and arm around their shoulder or waist giving a little squeeze of affection; smiles or chuckles were emitted, direct eye contact and confirmation evident and soothing verbal replies were given. As the children moved on to other activities, one child spontaneously thrust his arms around the teacher, tightly hugged her waist and trilled, "Oh, teacher, you do love me, don't you?" And then relished the teacher's reply, "Oh, yes, Bobby, I do love you."

How important it is that adults are continuously aware of and actively involved in creating the kind of an atmosphere that penetrates love, warmth, and support to every child.

ASSESSING SELF-CONCEPT

Turning now to some practical challenges or obstacles in connection with influencing positive self-concept. We find a number of problems has hampered effective research of self-concept development in very young children. One limitation has been the lack of valid self-concept measures for children of younger ages. During several years of assisting teachers and parents to acquire specific skills in order to make an impact on self-concept development, it became necessary to develop a self-report instrument adequate for use with younger children. This instrument is the Early Childhood Self-Concept Index (ECSCI).[13] The task of developing an instrument proved to be a difficult one for many reasons, one of which was that most of our sample population of children enrolled in the Brigham Young University preschool laboratory program registered fairly high self-concept level.

The ECSCI was designed for assessing the self-concept level of preschool and kindergarten age children. A specific use is screening for a potentially low self-concept level. The test is easily administered to an individual child by a trained tester or teacher. The index consists of a set of 21 pictures (3 warm-up and 18 test items) in flip-chart arrangement, with two probe questions asked about each picture. The verbal probes are printed on the back of the pictures for tester use. Responses to both probes are marked on a score sheet and each item is scored on a 7 point scale. The test yields a total score which can be plotted on a self-concept level evaluation scale.

The instrument has supporting validation data on children 4 through 6 years of age.[14] The ECSCI is not only practical for home or classroom use in identifying a low level of young children's self-concept, but can also be used as a pre and post-test for assessing the effectiveness of enhancement programs.

ASSISTING SELF-CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

Defining, describing, and analyzing components or even assessing self-concept will be of little value if specific procedures to effect change are not applied to youngsters who demonstrate a potentially low self-concept level. We have already discussed a general positive atmosphere created by a nurturing adult. This indeed is basic for whatever specific approach is implemented. However, let us be even more precise. Three procedures which seem to be effective in guiding young children's self-concept development are modeling or demonstration of both self-statements and behavior; providing opportunities for or eliciting success experiences; and labeling or verbally acknowledging one's abilities and attributes.

From earliest infancy, modeling is an effective force in the progressive development of human functioning. Therefore, modeling or the demonstration of desired behavior is a necessary element in establishing a positve self-concept. Through modeling a person may adopt as his own the characteristics of another.[15]

The second procedure, providing opportunities to succeed, is again of great value in assisting self-concept development. As discussed earlier, every individual needs to experience a feeling of accomplishment. A positive self-concept thrives on an abundance of successful experiences. Adults have an obligation to create situations in which children can achieve or demonstrate competence. These situations need not be great or grand in nature, but rather miniscule every day routines at home or school could very well suffice. Such things as tieing a shoe, emptying waste baskets, writing your name, or categorizing materials may all be small tasks but lend to a sense of accomplishment.

The final procedure is drawn from Felker's hypothesis that an individual's self-concept level increases with an increase in positive verbal statements made about that person - and going one step further with a postulation based on the work of Luria and Vygotsky that the self-esteem aspect of self-concept may be increased when the child himself verbalizes positive self-evaluation statements. The belief is presented that the verbalization of one's abilities and attributes is the basic premise upon which to make the goal of influencing positive self-concept a reality. [16, 17, 18.] It, of course, would be ineffectual to merely barage the child with superficial "niceties", or encourage the child to make self-statements not consistent with his understanding of self. This positive verbalization should take place in the context of the on-going curriculum or home routines.

It is assumed then that a positive self-concept will emerge in children when adults model characteristics of self-awareness where success experiences coupled with positive social reinforcements which include verbal feedback are provided and when an individual can describe himself objectively and accurately, identifying his own abilities and attributes. However, it is recognized that circumstances must be created in order for such experiences to occur. Thus, parents and teachers can and should become directly involved in guiding the emerging self-concept of young children.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CHILD'S SENSE OF STORY: IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL INTERVENTION

by

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Using stories as a form of oral discourse is as common as speaking, itself. The narrative story is one of the best ways to develop literacy in the early stages of language acquisition. Through narrative a child learns laws and order of his/her world. As language continues in complexity the story-form is a much used devise. Each of us tells a story to make generalizations, to make an entity of an activity and to give balance to our experience. "We dream in narrative, day-dream in narrative, remember, anticipate, hope, despair, believe, doubt, plan, revise, criticize, construct, gossip, learn, hate, love by narrative." (Hardy, 1968)

Such language--story narrative--is in spectator role* in which "the most important implication of that the role (spectator) is defined in terms of an attitude or approach to experience, not in terms of external standards of quality, complexity or "success" . . ." (Applebee 1977)

Sense of story-imposing a form of structure on events is a developmental process. Ruth Weir's data from "Language in the Crib" (1962) is clearly in the spectator role. Her recording of Anthony's pre-sleep monologue is without audience demand and is viewed as internally and singularly motivated. Halliday (1975) Cazden (1972), Chukovsky (1963) and others have done studies of language and use of story. Pitcher and Prelinger (1968) recorded stories told by children ranging in age from two to five. In their collection, number of words, number of T-units, number of characters, number of incidents and the average number of words per T-unit all show a consistent and significant rise with age.

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* See James Britton's (1970) and Applebee's (1978) distinction between language used in the role of the spectator (who, however moved by the experience, is not expected to directly intervene) and language used in the role of the participant (from whom a response of some sort is expected and required)

Applebee's (1978) story analysis focused on the three simple considerations of "sense of story"; a consistent use of past tense in the telling, a story beginning with a formal opening (for example "Once upon a time. . .") and an ending with a conventional closing; (". . happily ever after"). His research showed that 70 percent of the stories told by two-year olds made use of at least one of the three conventions and by five 50 percent made use of all three conventions.

There are other developments and changes in their stories as children progress from two to five besides syntactic measurements, sentence length, and word complexity. Characterizations, settings and themes became more remote from the immediate environment in which the child is directly familiar. Also, narrative, more tightly structured and controlled, begins to expand with favorite outside characters and settings where television and other stories infiltrate into models in the story being told.

The stages in the narrative development are closely paralleled to the stages in the cognitive development described by Vygotsky (1962) showing the same general developmental order. For instance in the early levels a collection of events may be related to one another only by their proximity in time and space. At the more sophisticated levels each event may be linked structurally both to a common center or theme and to the events which immediately proceed and follow it.

Figure 1.

The Structure of Children's Stories

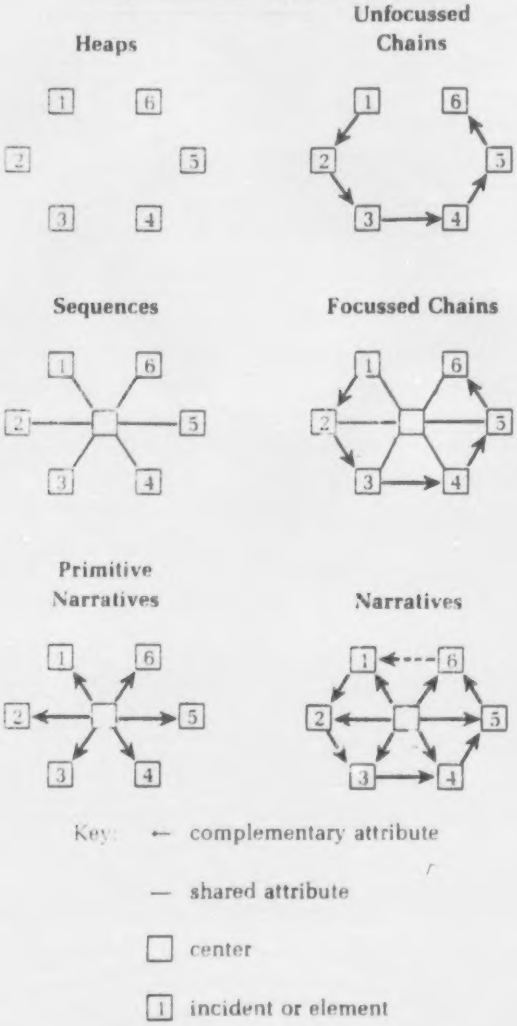

Figure 1 provides a schematic summary of the six basic type of structures found in story narrative analysis. These bear a remarkable resemblance to Vygotsky's concept development.

Diagram 1:

Heaps:

Vygotsky described this tendency of children to simply lump things together--a method of problem solving--that adults would solve by using a concept. There are few links from one sentence to another. It is a very premature mode of story organization; even at two years old, 15% used this form.

Sequences:

Vygotsky called this level "thinking in complexes". In telling stories, children place events in a superficial sequence in time, but the time is arbitrary. Event X happens before Event K without a discernible casual link. Instead the events are linked by a central core or common center which may be a character, form of action, scene, etc.

Sequences are the most frequently used structure at the age of two and continued in about 20 percent of the time in three and four's.

Premature Narratives:

When stories are told at this level each has a concrete core or event which has assumed a great importance to the child and to which is then added a set of complimentary attributes. In the preceding level, sequence, a character that is bad may lead to another bad person but in primitive narrative the bad person receives a punishment, an attributed ritual in the immediate environment of the child's experience. This structure occurred in about 20 percent of the stories told by two and three year-olds and about 10 percent of those who were four years old.

Unfocused Chain:

In children's stories at this level the events lead directly from one to another but the attributes shift. Characters pass in and out of the story and the setting is blurred. The result of the story is similar to a narrative but one which has lost its point of direction and all the various parts cannot be related.

About 16 percent of the five year olds used this structure of story telling where "chaining" is first evidenced.

Focused Chain:

In the child's story at this level there is a process of chaining and of centering around concrete attributes in one narrative. The central focus is usually a main character who goes through a series of events and is typical of the "continuing adventure of ______" type of story in radio series and children's adventure stories.

This is the most popular type of narrative structure among four and five-year olds, accounting for over half of the stories.

Narratives:

This is the stage at which stories begin to have a theme or moral.

The effect of the narrative is to allow the center focus to develop over the course of the narrative by including links based on complementary attributes. Each incident, then, develops out of the previous one and at the same time elaborates a new aspect of the theme, situation or central focus.

This story structure shows a sharp increase with age, from none used by two-year olds to 20 percent by age five.

"Such changes in the story told by very young children reflect their changing expectations about what a story is, as well as their expanding interests and capabilities in their more general life experiences." (Applebee 1977)

"Sense of Story" is seen as not only developmental but personal; one, which as it develops, progresses toward a mature construct. This internalization aids a learner in his ability to listen, read and helps in making predictions about possible meanings both at the syntactic and semantic levels. More simply it means that a child's sense of story assists in predicting what is likely to be said and how it might be said. In reading it means that a reader is likely to be able to predict what is stated on the printed page and how it might have been written.

If this is the case--the developmental level and extent of a child's sense of story influencing his comprehension--the implication for elementary teachers is to provide activities and experiences that are immersed in literary langugage which foster growth of story awareness. Through reading books, listening to them read aloud, through hearing and telling stories children can become familiar with a framework of reference about how stories are written and what can be anticipated in pattern and thought. Through book discussions, through use of literature in the total curriculum and providing for varied responses and enrichments to books children will synthesize knowledge of literature and develop a deeper interest and appreciation for it.

To teachers who are enthusiastic about literature, who understand the implications of sense of story and about book language, using books and book experiences will likely cause young readers to become lifetime readers.

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DEVELOPMENTAL TRENDS IN QUESTIONING
WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD SCIENCE

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A fundamental tool for the classroom teacher is that of questioning. Whether the teacher does the questioning, or provides the setting and materials for the children to question, the expression of curiosity or request for information stands at the beginning of much learning. Teacher questioning has a number of additional instructional functions, such as to

1. Get a particular student to participate.
2. Check on the student's comprehension.
3. Attract a student's attention.
4. Test a student's knowledge of the topic
5. Diagnose a student's weaknesses.
6. Break the ice and get a discussion going.
7. Allow a student to shine before his classmates.
8. Establish an explanation for a problem.
9. Review work for yesterday's absentees.
10. Build up a student's security when the teacher is quite sure the student will respond correctly.
11. Learn about a student's personal activities (which affect his classroom performance).
12. Attack issue A rather than B.

(Hyman, 1974, p. 290-291).

Questions also form an important part of science and science instruction. Early in their school experience children can begin to understand the nature and process of scientific questioning and its role in content acquisition (Kauchak & Eggen, in press). At the heart of scientific questioning is the notion that problem statements are answerable (and tentative answers testable) through observation and manipulation of objects, events and materials (McCain & Segal, 1974).

Questioning is but one scientific process which young children can practice and learn about. It is a process which is linked with others which, together, make up the "way to learn," which is known as scientific inquiry. Included among these other processes are:

- Observing
- Measuring
- Classifying
- Communicating
- Inferring
- Predicting
- Hypothesizing
- Controlling variables
- Interpreting data
- Operationally defining
- Generalizing
- Explaining

(Trojcak, 1979)

Learning to do science means integrating questioning with others of these science processes in a systematic way.

Teaching young children these processes not only provides experiince with doing science, but also gives them cognitive skills that can be used in other curricular areas, such as social studies and literature, as well as in practical, everyday life. Besides being a distinct scientific process in itself, questioning is also a technique to get at the other processes. For example, hypothesizing can be facilitated and improved with the use of questions (Suchman, 1960).

Another major goal of science instruction for young people, that of content acquisition, can also be reached through the effective use of questions. Questions can be used to introduce new topics, to relate ideas, and to reinforce or review familiar content.

QUESTIONS AND DEVELOPMENTAL DIFFERENCES

Despite their broad relevance and application in the science curriculum, the use and solicitation of questions with and from young children poses certain problems for the early childhood teacher. A major problem with using questions in the early childhood classroom relates to developmental differences in questioning: research has given evidence that the intellectual activity of questioning progresses through drastically different characteristics as children grow, experience the world, and complete mental development (Flavell, 1977). Implications of this fact will be addressed in this section. A second category of difficulties in dealing with questions in a school setting pertains to the special nature of scientific questioning: with teacher assistance students can learn, at an early age, the characteristics and "rules" of valid scientific inquiry, but this requires careful teacher planning. This topic will be addressed in the next section.

Anyone who has talked and worked with children is aware of differences in the quality of thought expressed by them, compared with adults. Child talk may seem illogical, confused and overly narrow in perspective. These differences are due to more than just a lack of information; young people describe strange (to us) cause and effect relationships and explanations for phenomena. For example, a five year old says that wind is caused by windows, that trees were originally built by people, and that the moon follows her home from grandma's house. These ideas are a result of intellectual processes which change from birth to maturity in rather regular patterns. Changes of this type are called developmental, and they show up in many aspects of a person's behaviors, including questioning.

Careful observers of the development of children, most notable Jean Piaget, have described these characteristic developmental stages of life. Of most pertinence to the early childhood teacher are those of the pre-operational and early formal operational stages, those spanning the ages of 2 to 11.

The preoperational period (approximately 2-6 yrs) gets its name in relation to the stage of intellectual development which is to follow. During the preoperational stage the child takes monumental strides in the development of symbolic behavior. It is during this period that he or she begins to develop the idea that symbols stand for objects and classes of objects. Initially, the child uses words and symbols as direct referents for objects. For example, the word cup is not a name for all containers with handles, but rather a name for his or her cup or the object immediately in front of themself. In a similar manner, dog does not refer to a class or group of animals, but to a particular animal. It is during this period of development that the child begins to understand that the word dog can be a generic term, referring to all animals with certain generalizable characteristics. This is a revolutionary intellectual change, and marks a major difference in the way in which a person understands and answers questions.

The child, in progressing through this stage, begins to acquire abilities to abstract and to process complicated vocabulary. However, intellectual progress is based on experience and is dependent on opportunities to manipulate objects, materials and ideas. The development of the ability to generalize and use symbolic behavior requires that a child be provided with both physical experience and verbal practice and chances to test logic. Thus, questioning--in connection with elementary "experimenting"--and reasoning--followed by testing in reality--can be a significant part of intellectual development.

The next level of interest is called the stage of concrete operations (7-14). It is characterized by regular and sequential forms of reasoning and the beginnings of logical operations. At this age the child is moving away from an ego-centric position, in which objects and events are defined by his or her own personal life, to understandings which incorporate the regularity of natural phenomena. The young person of this age is able to sequence objects according to general characteristics. For example, he or she becomes able to order sticks according to the abstract notion of relative length. The child is also able to deal with the reality of conservation of mass, length and time when materials are altered in other dimensions. In general, the concrete operational child is able to perform logical operations on concrete (present) objects or even imagined objects. He or she is able to complete "if...then..." operations as well as to grasp the significance of a given case in terms of generalizations to all such cases.

Questions change in their nature and potentiality for concrete operational children. For example, predictive questions become much more based on previous experience, and especially experience gained in slightly different settings. For the first time answers become linked in logical chains which result in generalized conclusions.

While the acquistion of concrete operations means major qualitative changes in intellectual operations, it remains for the acquisition of formal operations (14 and up) for the most complete forms of science activity to appear. During this stage children acquire a number of scientifically important skills such as the ability to control variables, test all possibilities, use abstract operations on abstract generalizations (hypotheses) and to deal with multiple interacting variables. Acquisition of these abilities has implications for students' ability to do science; adult science takes definite different forms than that of young people. However, it is during the younger years and stages that people learn the fundamental processes of science. Even in the preoperational stage children can learn to be careful observers, to link events with ideas, to manipulate materials with ideas in mind, to create possible explanations and predictions, and to test their predictions.

A major difficulty adult teachers can have in dealing with young children, science processes and questions is that we have no logical memory of how a child sees the world and processes information about it. While adults have recollections of some experience, there is not direct means for recalling or experiencing exactly how it is that children think. According to Piaget (1960), one part of our intellect--memory--has been transformed or reorganized with all the other parts of our rational load. Thus, the only means adults have of knowing the mind of the child is through careful observation and listening. This fact gives the role of classroom questioning an added dimension: it is an important means for the teacher to become acquainted with the world of children. Instead of questions and answers to be viewed as one way activities for child development, they are also important tools for adult learning.

SCIENCE AND QUESTIONING

Classroom science questions have two major functions. First, through practice, students become more efficient questioners: student questions can be improved as they become more (1) testable, (2) focused on single variables, (3) related to general science ideas, and (4) have meaning and interest to the person asking them. All of these factors can be emphasized, modeled and practiced in early childhood programs. Second, questions have the important function of getting students in contact with the natural objects, events, and environment, around them. Ways of doing this will be described in the next section.

Effective teaching of science questioning consists of assisting students to ask questions, to "fool around" with materials in relation to the questions, and to reason in light of the questions and the experience. It also consists of asking questions which support interest, point out key features of objects and events, and make connections between former and present experiences. Finally, effective questioning includes giving students an opportunity to reason about what they have seen and thought in an atmosphere which is non-corrective but accepting of child-logic. Ways of helping students develop these skills will be discussed in the following section.

CLASSROOM QUESTIONING ACTIVITIES

The following are some initial ideas for using questions with young children who are beginning to do science.

1. Practice reasoned guessing. Present discrepant events and call for possible explanations.

2. Give problem solving tasks like the following:

    a. How can you clean muddy water? Provide sand, cotton, filters, paper and various cones to enable children to mess around with muddy water. Have a brief discussion session after.

    b. What sinks and what floats? In answering this question, children can test floating and sinking objects and those in between (clay or aluminum foil boats).

    c. What makes big soap bubbles? Try various detergents and solutions.

    d. How do snails get around? (on glass, ramps, lettuce, etc.)

    e. How do drops of various liquids differ? Look carefully at drops of syrup, water, oil, etc. on different surfaces.

    f. Fly kites. What makes them work best? What effects do tails, surface, supports have on kites?

    g. What makes ice melt, and how can you keep it from melting or melt faster?

h. What is the deepest hole you can dig (limited to 6" in diameter)?

i. What is necessary to make a battery light a bulb?

3. Practice "what questions can you ask" about objects, events and environments. No answers are given, but the variety and importance of questions is emphasized.

As mentioned previously, the functions of activities such as these are two fold. One is to bring students into contact with the world around them; the other is to teach students to ask questions that are not only meaningful to them but answerable through empirical means.

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TEACHERS AND THE SELF CONCEPT

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The self concept, or the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings about himself or herself and the positive or negative feelings toward the self (self esteem)[1] are products of interaction in which, in the classroom, both the student and the teacher are engaged. In other words, "People do not engage only in an active defense of, but also in an aggressive search for, self-esteem."[2] The student, then, is an active participant in the process of interaction and experience through which the self concept and evaluative feelings about the self are formed. Teachers who are interested in helping students to develop positive views of themselves may find encouragement in the realization that they and their students are in partnership in this important goal.

One of the sources of a person's feelings about his or her self is that of reflected appraisals from others. We do tend to be influenced by what we perceive the feelings of others to be. "A teacher's interactions in the classroom are, therefore, highly important. If a child has a negative self-image, and this is reinforced by the teacher, the child's peers will be inclined to treat the child negatively. The teacher needs to be at his/her affirming best in interactions with the class as a whole, as well as with individual children."[3]

Not all children in any classroom will view the teacher in the same

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way, for a variety of reasons, some of which are beyond the control of the teacher. But it is important that teachers shall work to establish and to maintain a warm mutual relationship with each child. Children are adept at discerning the attitudes and feelings of teachers toward them. Sometimes, middle class children perceive their teacher's attitudes toward them to be more favorable than do those from lower class backgrounds. One study[4] found that middle class children perceived their teacher to be a helping person, whereas those from the lower class regarded him more as a disciplinarian or controlling person. This is important in view of the realization that teachers are "significant others" in the life of the child, but not all "others" are equal. "Our self-attitudes are more heavily influenced by those people whose judgments we value and trust; but we particularly value and trust those whose judgments of us are positive."[5] If the classroom is to reach its potential as an aid to the development of positive self feelings, the teacher needs to take the lead in developing and maintaining the relationship that will serve as the foundation for this process. He may not be able to love every child in the classroom, but does need to feel a strong commitment to each of the students with whom he works.

Feelings about the self are also related to the experiences of successes and failures. Careful planning and individualized experiences can provide opportunities for success, and the trusted teacher who has a warm relationship with a child has a better opportunity to help the child to convert failure into a successful learning experience.

It is not our intent to suggest that the teacher has only to waive the magic wand and classroom problems will be overcome. We recognize that forces that promote or retard development and learning are complex. It is true that self consistency is a component of self esteem, and

> the low self-esteem person may be reluctant to believe that he is more intelligent, attractive, or masterful than he currently assumes because, acting on these assumptions, he might find his hopes dashed, his aspirations frustrated. . . .people establish their aspiration levels in a fashion designed to maximize self-esteem. Thus, the low self-esteem person who maintains self-consistency by setting low aspirations and expecting to perform poorly is at the same time protecting his self-esteem by avoiding failure.[6]

People do act in accordance with their self concept, to preserve it in spite of contradictory evidence, either positive or negative. This makes it all the more important that the teacher shall promote a classroom climate in which one can feel safe to place the self at risk, and thus learn, and develop new perceptions.

Another component of the self-concept which is closely related to the teacher's behavior is that of the ascribed aspects of the self. Skin color, sex, nationality, ethnicity, etc. all have important consequences related to the child's struggle to acquire a concept of his or her self. It seems to be particularly important that each child shall be known and shall be seen as an individual, each as a person with his or her own characteristics, needs, hopes, and abilities. To the extent that this is true, it will be possible to avoid seeing any child in terms of stereotypes. It is, however, equally important that our acceptance of the child shall extend to and include his or her being black, brown, or white; boy or girl; of whatever ethnic origin or nationality because these are inherent aspects of the self from which the self-image cannot be separated.

Ego extensions of the self overlap, in part, and are closely related to ascribed aspects of the self, as components of the self-image. Ego extensions, or those things external to the self that can arouse feelings of pride or shame are an important dimension of the self-image. Children who are closely identified with their family, their ethnic group, other reference groups, will have a feeling of belonging that makes the group a necessary concern to the teacher who would contribute positive feelings toward the child's growing awareness of self. Cultural difference, and diversity, need to be affirmed and respected. To do otherwise is to rob the minority child of the foundation of group support, provided the teacher has succeeded in becoming a valued or significant other in the mind of the child. Significant others are more powerful than society at large. "Indeed, it is virtually certain that the minority child's self-esteem is far more heavily influenced by what his mother, father, teachers, siblings, and classmates think of him than by what the broader society thinks of him. . . . Minority children assuredly do tend to see themselves as others see them but only if the opinions of these others are highly valued."[7] Those children who do not value their relationship with the teacher and who view him or her from a negative perspective may be somewhat protected from hurt by that person but, in turn, such a teacher will have little opportunity to contribute positively to the child's self development in any way. It seems that teachers who care little about their children are somewhat limited in their capacity either to help or to hurt them, whereas those who do care and who build a warm mutual relationship increase their potential both to help and to hurt the child's development of a positive self concept.

In the classroom, ego extensions relate very closely and strongly to the child's own creations, such as stories, poems, and art work. Few things are experienced as being as central to the self as those which are produced by our own efforts, and this seems to be equally true for both children and adults. LeMasters[8] has described the feelings of the skilled tradesmen he studied, toward their work and the things they build. One carpenter said:

> I tell you, Lee, I get a hell of a kick when I drive around town and see a building I helped to put up. You know that Edgewater Hotel down by the lake? I worked on that sonofabitch fifteen years ago and she's still beautiful. I did the paneling in that dining room that looks out over the water. Sometimes I drive down there just to see the damn thing--do you think I'm nuts or something?

Children, probably to a greater degree than adults, seem to see their own creations as expressions of themselves as persons. "It is mine" is often an expression in a very real way of "It is me", which suggests that teachers need to give careful thought to how such objects are treated.

Lambert[9] has suggested that children's classroom creations should be displayed where they can been seen. If this is to be done,

> every child's work is entitled to equal consideration. Too often displays of children's art includes only the work of those children who are capable of producing results sufficiently impressive to the teacher. This is unfortunate. The child whose work is not considered worthy of being displayed is receiving a message that tells him his work is not worthwhile and, by implication, neither is he.

She further suggests that displays should be at the child's eye level where they best can be seen, because children soon lose interest in things outside the range of their usual line of vision. Unimportant things may be relegated to the top of the blackboard, but children's own creations need to be seen as extensions of the child and made to be as important as we want the child to feel.

As we view the child, the importance of the global self concept is not to be discounted. However, teachers may find it quite advantageous to be aware of particular aspects of each child's own self structure. It is essential to be familiar with each child as a person because, while they are similar, each is different. One may take pride in his family, a second in his ethnic background, a third in his religious affiliation, a fourth in his race, and so on. The concept of "identity prominence"[10] may help us to come to know individual children in ways which make it possible to relate to them more closely, and to provide more meaningful reinforcement than would have been possible had we not known what was of importance to them as individuals.

Global, as well as individual concerns are also of importance in relation to the whole school with its individual teachers. It is essential that the school shall be unified by an overall philosophy to serve as a guide to individual teachers. The school, or the district, as a whole needs to confront the need for affirmation of difference and of cultural diversity because the effect of rejection because of one's cultural background may be more insidious than that of direct prejudice.

> The reason is that if others attack us directly, it is possible to mobilize our psycnological defenses--to conclude that the other is stupid, bigoted, and ignorant, to counterattack with our own epithets, and so on. If, on the other hand, we accept and internalize the general standards and values of the dissonant context, then we may come to despise ourselves--to believe that we are strange and different, that we are inept at the skills and talents valued in the new environment, that we are ignorant of the things that count. This kind of attack is particularly devastating, for it is an attack from within.[11]

Mutual cooperation and support is needed between teachers and the administration in order to achieve the teamwork that is essential. The alternative is for children to receive contradictory messages from various individuals with a consequent reduction in the potential power of the school to contribute to personal growth.

Teachers, principal, all school personnel have a role in relation to the child's feelings and perceptions related to the self. All school personnel who have an opportunity to build close relationships with students are "significant others" in their lives, and those who are burdened by feelings of inadequacy are bound to project these feelings onto the children[12] unless they find ways to enrich their own lives. Fortunately, those who feel isolated and alone and who might otherwise attempt to meet their own needs for affirmation and belonging through their contact with students, are not helpless. Fromm[13] has reminded us that our own efforts to reach out, to establish new and meaningful relationships may lead to more satisfying lives. His "to be interested makes one interesting" suggests a pathway to personal enrichment that is important to those adults whose own hunger and needs might lead them to be more receivers than givers in their contact with the students. Jersild has reminded us that:[14]

> One cannot understand another's hurts in a manner that will enable one to minister to him most effectively unless one has enough concern for oneself to realize and to appreciate what it means in one's own experience to be hurt. One cannot understand another's hunger for affection, or sense his craving for being accepted, nor realize how starved he is for companionship, unless one can draw upon one's own realization of what this hunger means and what the nature of the experience is by which the hungry one can be filled.

As we undertake the task of helping our students to develop a favorable self-image, then, we begin with concern for ourselves. We need to know and affirm our own selves sufficiently that we are able to function as a giver in the close and important relationship that will help our students to develop favorably as persons.

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MOTIVATING INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY IN CHILDREN:
A QUEST OF THE CHILDREN'S MUSEUM OF UTAH

Karl deCourcy Pope

In summary, then, it seems logical to say that the Chinese proverb holds true:

> I hear...I forget.
> I see...I remember.
> I do...I understand.

The lecture for the most part is quickly forgotten. The demonstration, eruditely called the "show and tell" technique, is remembered. But involvement -- doing or solving a problem yourself - gives understanding. If the problem is a real life one as opposed to being a text book situation, the learning is even greater.

I gave the summary of this presentation at the beginning to help those who have heavy eyelids. You now know what I will talk about. Relax and enjoy this introduction to the philosophy of The Children's Museum of Utah.

All that the Children's Museum will become can not be expressed in a thousand words or a thousand pictures, but next summer when it opens in Salt Lake City, come to visit and experience what we are about. Other museums for children in the country describe our philosophy in their names (we wish we'd thought of them first): The Please Touch Museum of Philadelphia, the Exploritorium of San Francisco. There are children's museums in

Indianapolis, Denver, Palo Alto and Boston. Children are drawn to them because they can touch, use, explore the exhibits. They get their hands on the paint pendulum, the color mixers, the parabolic sound reflectors. They make things work, find out what they do, and sometimes even why.

In T. H. White's The Once and Future King, King Arthur was tutored by one of literature's great teachers - Merlin. Wart loved him. Merlin never bored the boy with explanations, nor did he talk down to him. But with his magical powers Merlin changed Wart into animals for him to gain insight from experiences. To understand military affairs, for example, Wart was transformed into a hawk. To understand strength, he was changed into a badger. Even as a man those experiences had impact - they influenced the founding of a kingdom. Would that we all had some of Merlin's magic and could open to a child the experience of being a poet or a carpenter, an explorer or scientist even just for an hour.

In reality the magic is the learning by doing approach to education developed by such leaders as Jerome Bruner, Abraham Maslow, Jean Piaget, Maria Montessori, John Dewey and Calvin Taylor. They remind us of what Merlin knew all along: if you want a child to understand something, motivate his intellectual curiosity through experiences in discovering and solving real life problems on his own. Many times the best answer we can give a child is, "That's a good question; how can we find out the answer?" We give support, help, asked for advice - but not the answer. Most of the time we should let children pose the questions.

The area of children's science is an excellent example. When left in a text book or as an "I-have-all-the-answers" lecture, or even on the demonstration table, the great discoveries of the natural world are dead in the experience of children. The facts are cut, dried and formidable; the experiments irrelevant. There is no true understanding, no discovery - until there is real life involvement with the natural mysteries that tease young minds to discover over again the principles for themselves.

The Elementary Science Study has developed a series of high interest science-math units that concentrate on hands-on activities from sand pendulums and butterflies to colored solutions and optics. These ESS units are designed to intrigue the kindergarteners to however old you are when you feel you've learned all you need to learn. (My observation is that some reach that mythical age before kindergarten while others will never learn enough to satisfy themselves.) The general methodology follows. Hand out materials, carefully selected to demand immediate involvement - a battery, flashlight bulb and copperwire, for example. Let the students explore what can be done with the stuff. Pose questions, then let them find solutions. How does electricity work, anyway? Encourage the class to generate its own data, go in its own directions as real life problems are perceived. After a while consult texts and experts, but let them learn as much as possible on their own first. The results are rewarding and for a significant number of kids, learning becomes fun!

The Elementary Science Study has done a particularly fine job of developing a content-process approach. The Museum is relying heavily on this ESS technique in all phases of content and process work.

The unique resources of the Children's Museum will motivate intellectual curiosity through involvement in arts, humanities, sciences and community life resources as well. Artists and craftsmen in residence, a giant heart to walk through, computer games, a real print shop, a working garden, small living things, a stream table and wave machine will all be available.

The Museum will be fun for the child who spins through it on one level, but we will offer in-depth workshops and creative experiences on other levels of inquiry also. For example, the children's newspaper Make Way for Kids is already tapping the creativity of young writers and artists in this real life journalistic endeavor. The newspaper will be distributed free to children throughout the metropolitan area.

The Children's Museum of Utah is being built to be a place for questions, but more than that, a place for kids to learn that they can learn on their own. The Museum will be full of materials and exhibits that beg to be touched, worked, understood and returned to; a place to find an interest and start to pursue it; a place to try being a printer, an archeologist, an explorer; a place for active inquiry and practical experience.

AN EAR TO LISTEN - NOT A MOUTH TO TELL

Between the ages of seven and ten Tony had experienced the following life situations in his social, emotional and intellectual growth and development:*

1. Taken from his alcoholic mother by the county social service agency.
2. Placed in a total of eight foster homes where he had either been totally ignored or beaten for minor infractions.
3. Forcibly separated from his twin brother and younger sister through their being legally adopted soon after being placed on the adoption list.
4. Placed for possible adoption with a middle-aged couple for a six month trial adoptive period. The results were:
    a. Three runaways by Tony from the adoptive situation.
    b. Six months of emotional turmoil.
    c. Being returned to the county social service agencies and hearing the comment made, "We can't stand that boy." "You take him back and keep him."
    d. Being told repeatedly that, "If you don't change no one will ever want you."
5. Allowed to live again with his mother who had seemingly overcome a serious drinking problem. During this period of time the following recorded experiences occurred:
    a. The mother lived with a minimum of six different men.
    b. Whenever the situation became uncomfortable, her statement to Tony was, "Well, tomorrow we'll run away from this place."

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*Actual case history

c. The mother-son relationship ending abruptly with the mother committing suicide by pouring kerosene over her body and bed and setting fire to herself.

d. Having been sent from the one-room bungalow just prior to the suicide, Tony witnessed the smoke pouring from the home, and was physically restrained from entering the smoke filled room.

e. Tony further viewed the ambulance attendants wheel his badly burned mother to the ambulance.

f. At this point, the mother who was still alive, said something to Tony which caused this 9 year old boy to place the blame for his mother's suicide attempt and death the following day on himself. What was said exactly has never been revealed to psychologist or psychiatrists.

g. After the death of his mother Tony was placed in his last foster home.

After reaching his tenth birthday, Tony was once again taken into a home for the six month adoption trial period. The family which took him at that time consisted of five children. Three were natural children of the parents, while the two younger children had been adopted at birth. During the next six months Tony was involved in every major type of overt behavior imaginable. He created problems at school as well as in the home and community. Although there were three runaways during this time, Tony did return to the home on his own. Finally after a one year period the family decided to go through with the legal adoption knowing that such a step would present serious future problems for the family and Tony. Their decision was most influenced by the feeling that he could not emotionally handle another rejection.

The next four years were filled with emotional turmoil within the family and Tony. The most serious concerns which affected his emotional adjustment were:

1. An inability to express or receive love. It was extremely difficult for Tony to adjust to a family who were openly demonstrative in their verbal and nonverbal expressions of love. Prior to coming to the adoptive family, Tony could never remember being told that he was loved.

2. Complete frustration and boredom in school. With a measured IQ of 136+ it was extremely difficult for his teachers to accept his overt behavioral patterns and challenge him intellectually.

3. A high level of egocentrism which caused an inability on the part of Tony to relate to the feelings or needs of anyone else. He felt that everyone should feel and think the way he did because that was the only way he could perceive anyone thinking.

4. An inability to relate to his immediate peer group. Tony felt most comfortable with older and adult friends. A friend, however, became his personal possession never to be shared and jealously guarded.

5. An amazing ability to manipulate people in order to get his way. The one skill which he had to develope in order to accomplish such manipulations was that of being able to lie convincingly. Many recorded instances showed his skill in being able to almost convince adults they actually could not believe or did not see something they had actually witnessed personally.

6. This skill in lying further manifested itself in his seeming inability to admit guilt or wrong-doing for anything in which he was involved. He possessed the ability to convince everyone of his innocence even when facts revealed differently.

7. An obsession with cleanliness which manifested itself in his having to wash his hands and arms many times throughout the day, and the need for at least two extremely long showers per day.

8. Constant nightmares in which he was monsters and evil spirits.

9. Five runaways from home between the ages of ten and fourteen.

10. Two attempts at suicide involving a loaded pistol and a massive overdose of pills. Each suicide attempt was motivated by his expressed desire to see his mother to see if she would forgive him.

11. Even after extensive and intensive work with psychologists and psychiatrists Tony manifested less ability to cope with reality, more hallucinations, and a continued obsession with wanting to see his mother.

After seeking and exhausting assistance from school, county and state agencies, the adoptive parents were faced with an agonizing decision. Recognizing their inability to cope with the possible consequences of his erratic behavior and as a means of providing a stable home environment for their two younger boys, the decision was made to place Tony in a private school which had successfully worked with young men with serious emotional concerns. This action was taken as a last resort and after everything else had failed. They sought to place their son in an environment which would protect him and hopefully assist him in gaining an understanding of himself.

Perhaps the most serious problem involved in working with Tony was the situation into which his adoptive parents and teachers were placed. Each problem evolved into a situation in which they were forced to react to the situation of the moment rather than being able to determine the reasons for the behavior. This reaction on their part further prevented the initiation of steps which would assist in developing solutions for the actual causes of Tony's overt behavior. Such reactions were best summarized by Tony himself when by his adoptive father right after the trial adoption period began. At that time Tony was asked if he would like to talk about himself. Tony replied, "Man, I need an ear to listen to me, not another mouth to tell me what to do." With this statement Tony summed up his deep-rooted frustrations with his life. No one had understood this overt behavior patterns were cries for help. No one understood because they were too involved in trying to tell him how he should act rather than listening to his verbal and nonverbal attempts to communicate his hurt.

Traditionally, education has involved itself with instruction and training in the cognitive and psychomotor domains. We have avoided working with students in the affective domain because of several reasons. Chief among these reasons would be our reluctance to attempt to change student attitudes, beliefs and values, a preconceived notion that parents do not want teachers involved in such instruction; and the idea that instruction in the affective domain is difficult or impossible to measure.

It is clear, however, that each child enrolled in our schools and classes are influenced in both positive and negative ways by their level of moral development. Piaget contends that adults can have an enormous positive influence on a child's moral development if they place themselves on an equal footing with children and stress bilateral acceptance and adherance to certain rules. When an adult exercises their authority in a unilateral and arbitrary manner, the child's subsequent moral development is inhibited. The child feels that morality is only for those not big enough to enforce their power or will. The mouth tells how to act, but the ear fails to listen to the child's moral dilemma.

Over the past twenty years, Kohlberg has researched the developmental aspects of moral and ethical reasoning. Similar to Piaget's stages of cognitive and moral development, he theorizes that children go through a hierarchical progression of ethical and moral development in their maturation process. These levels are invariant; the higher stages include the lower stages; one stage builds into another; new stages cannot be instilled directly but must be developed from many social experiences; and the level of moral development cannot be equated with age. He proposes three main levels with two stages for each level. A brief summary of Kohlberg's levels and stages of moral development is outlined below. (Sund, 1976)

Preconventional level: At this level the child responds to rules and labels such as good and bad, right and wrong. If he is good he is rewarded, if bad he is punished. His concerns are oriented toward external, concrete consequences.

Stage 1: The child is motivated by fear of getting caught and the desire to avoid punishment by those in authority.

Stage 2: Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies personal needs. Motivated by self-interest; what's in it for me and concrete reciprocity. (i.e. Let's make a deal, you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours.)

Conventional level: Values expectations of the family, group or nation are accepted. Concerned with meeting external social obligations.

Stage 3: Good boy-nice girl orientation. Motivated by desire for social approval gained by living up to good boy/ good girl sterotyped image and by meeting the expectations of others.

Stage 4: Law and order orientation. Motivated by sense of duty or obligation to live up to socially defined roles and respect for authority. Seeks to maintain the existing social order for the good of all.

Postconventional level: A clear effort to teach a personal definition of moral values. Manifested by a concern for fidelity to self-chosen moral principles.

Stage 5: Clear awareness of the importance of personal values. Right and wrong actions defined in terms of individual rights which have been critically examined and agreed upon by the society.

Stage 6: Right defined by the conscience as related to principles chosen by the individual. Motivated by internal commitment to principles of conscience, and for a respect for the rights, life and dignity of all persons.

In the study of value and moral development it becomes clear that the child cannot be expected to interact with others at the higher levels of moral development unless they are given the opportunities to do so. Our contemporary prisons and youth detention homes typically impose Kohlberg's first level of moral choice and development on their wards--that of fear of being caught and avoidance of punishment. This imposed level is developed with a high degree of shrewdness and furtiveness by prisoners in order to exist within the system. Amongst themselves, however, it would be reasonable to expect them to operate at the self-interest stage (Stage 2). They are motivated by the "What's in it for me" level of reasoning in their concern and needs to look out for themselves.

It becomes increasingly obvious that Tony's moral development was largely contained within level one and within stages one and two. Although there were times when he expressed and attempted to obtain social approval (Stage 3), he was primarily concerned with the self-interest, What's in it for me level of moral motivation. As his enrollment in the private school lengthened, it became obvious that Tony's behavior fit into patterns which were similar to other boys enrolled. These similarities were manifested by the following symptoms:

1. An inability to relate to the feelings of others. This inability to relate included those who were significant in their lives. (i.e. parents, relatives, teachers, therapists, etc.)
2. Poor self-image.
3. Developed skills in lying and manipulation of anyone with whom they associated.
4. Defensive.
5. An inability and/or unwillingness to accept delay of any simple or complex demand. They could not separate needs from wants. Each want would become an obsessive need.
6. A history of family discord.
7. A further history of failure in the school and community.
8. Depression and self-degradation.
9. Dependence and lack of motivation.
10. Social deviancy.
11. Impulsiveness and hostility.

It is interesting to note that the majority of boys enrolled in the private school not only had experienced failure in school, but considered schools as a waste of time and a major inhibiting factor in their lives. With most of the students diagnosed as exhibiting psychopathic behavior, it became the prime consideration of the private school to provide experiences which would assist the individual in gaining successful school experiences. Further experiences were designed to develop the individual student's ability to make proper personal decision based on correct reasons. The private school in which Tony was placed contained a student population of emotionally handicapped students. It is true, however, that each of the boys enrolled has attended schools in the public sector prior to their placement. It is then possible that our public schools presently contain large numbers of students who characterize some or all of the same symptoms manifested by Tony and the other students enrolled in the private school.

If true, it becomes increasingly important for educators to develop methods for coping with, and procedures for possible solutions to defined needs such as those listed. The question then becomes, "Should the schools attempt to do anything about moral problems and development?" One Gallup poll revealed that 79 percent of the respondents felt that schools should offer instruction in morals and moral behavior. (Lickona, 1979) It must also be considered that throughout the child's schooling, teachers and other adult authorities unwittingly transmit moral lessons to children. With increasing student involvement in the use of marijuana, alcohol, hard drugs, absenteeism, lack of interest and continuing discipline problems, successful student academic achievement is constantly being challenged. Schools should and must be involved in developing means which would overcome any problem found to inhibit student learning success. Perhaps the question should be, 'What methods may be utilized in providing social interaction for students which will help them be involved in making moral decisions?"

If this question were successfully met, our schools and other social institutions could provide meaningful opportunities for individuals to clarify their thinking in the areas of value conflicts and further progress to higher stages and levels of moral development. Failure to do this would only serve to perpetuate present levels of student moral inadequacy.

In order to assist educators in gaining an understanding of the affective domain, Bloom and his associates developed a taxonomy which outlined a hierarchy of values, attitudes and belief development. This hierarchy is summarized below. (Popham, 1965)

1. Receiving (Attending): At this level the learner is aware of the existence of certain values or beliefs and is willing to listen to or receive them.

2. Responding: At this level the student goes beyond merely receiving. Here the students are sufficiently motivated to actively commit themselves in a small measure to the particular values under consideration.

3. Valuing: This level of the affective domain is characterized by the learner's acceptance of a particular value as having worth. They are willing to be identified with, and committed to pursue or seek that value.

4. Organization: Through acceptance and internalization of a value, the learner is faced with the necessity to organize his values into an interrelated system of dominant and pervasive values.

5. Characterization: At this highest level of the hierarchy the value(s) have found a place in the individual's value hierarchy and have been organized into an internally consistent value framework. The learner characterizes that framework through actions and decisions which are consistent with his internalized values.

The necessity of providing social experiences designed to give the student skill in making moral decisions has already been discussed. A framework designed to implement value development was proposed by

Rath (Rath et. al., 1978). This process of valuing is outlined as:

1. Choosing freely: No value is initially received by the learner unless he feels it is attended freely and without coercion. A value that is freely selected will be more readily accepted as a value central to the individual student.
2. Choosing from alternatives: Free choice cannot be made intelligently unless there are logical alternatives from which to consider and choose. The more alternatives from which the learner is able to consider and choose, the more likely the emergence of a viable and meaning value.
3. Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative: Impulsive or thoughtless selection of an alternative does not lead to the type of values which are meaningful. For a value to be meaningful and intelligent it must emerge in a context of understanding. Only when the consequences of each alternative understood and considered do we eliminate the impulsive or thoughtless action or choice.
4. Prizing and cherishing: If the value becomes meaningful in the life of the learner he will prize, cherish, esteem and respect it. He is happy with the choices and judge them positively.
5. Affirming: After we have chosen freely after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of our alternatives, and prize the choices made, we then manifest a willingness to let others know our values.
6. Acting upon choices: When we have a value it should reveal itself in the everyday aspects of our living. This revealing is manifested through our behavior and association with friends, organizations, etc. which continue to give direction and impetus to our life style based on the particular value.

If we recognize the need to develop student values at the level where life styles become organized and characterized by a particular value, the model outlined becomes a viable method for value clarification. Contrary to what critics of value clarification believe, the model which provides free choice is not a form of behavior modification. While it is true that negative values may be modified, such change comes from the learner being able to choose freely from alternatives provided by the teacher, parent and/or peer group relations.

The next decade will bring a powerful thrust toward the child advocacy movement. Basically this thrust will be influenced by the statement, "Unless there is a risk of irreversible damage or clear evidence that a child cannot exercise discretion, parents, and the state should not have the right to make unilateral decisions that seriously affect children's lives. The child's interest is best measured by himself." (Bersoff, 1979) If we hope to develop students who are capable of measuring their own interests we must accept the responsibility for their moral development. This responsibility would most logically apply to those areas which have an effect on their success in the school environment. Moral development is enhanced through social experiences which allow student growth through decision-making. Internalized values which have been freely chosen from carefully considered alternative choices give the student the ability to:

1. Enhance their ability to communicate their ideas, beliefs, values and feelings.
2. Enhance ability to empathize with others whose circumstances differ from their own.
3. Resolve problems as they arise.
4. Engage in decision-making.
5. Hold and use consistent beliefs and disbeliefs.
6. Assent and dissent as a member of a social group. (Rath, 1978).
7. Express themselves with confidence in value related areas.

Behavioral patterns identified with the learner who does not have a value directed life has been identified as:

1. Apathetic—Listless and uninterested.
2. Flightly—Interested in many things for fleeting moments.
3. Extreme uncertainty—Hardly ever able to make up their minds.
4. Very inconsistent—Life patterns are incompatible.
5. Drifters—Planless and unenthusiastic living.
6. Overconformers—Follow that they perceive to be the dominant viewpoint of the moment.
7. Overdissenters—Chronic nagging, complaining, irrational dissenters.
8. Role players—Cover lack of value clarity by assuming a false role. (Rath, 1979)

Clearly we recognize these concerns in Tony as well as many students we work with on a daily basis. Although Tony's problems could not have been solved in their entirety by such strategies, he could have been affected in a positive and meaningful way by any teacher who exhibited empathy, respect, warmth, genuiness and love. He could and would have been a different person if he had been given an ear to listen rather than a continuous line of mouths to tell. It would be naive to assume or propose that such instruction is easily accomplished. The teacher must first and foremost develop a classroom atmosphere of trust and mutual confidence and respect. These feelings of trust must not only exist between the teacher and students, but more importatnly between the students themselves. The teacher must be cautious in presenting strategies which are not only relevant to students needs, but are appropriate for the students' level of learning and moral reasoning ability. Above all, the teacher must have the ability to listen not only to what the student is saying, but to what is not being said. It is what may be read between the spoken lines and the nonverbal communications which will give us the indications as to the students' real needs. Perhaps the real success of teachers who involve themselves in value and moral development will be measured by those who are capable and willing to accept the actions of each child. We tend to concern ourselves with what students do rather than why certain actions are committed. It must be understood that the reasons for behavioral patterns are more important than the behavior itself. As we react to what is being done we are treating the symptoms of the illness, but if we can discover and react to why the student is acting in a negative manner, we will be able to treat the illness itself.

The case history of Tony is unique because of the extreme nature of his emotional and intellectual development. His various patterns of behavior are not unique, however, when compared with the overall developmental and behavioral patterns of today's students as a whole. Individual students may be found in our schools who exhibit similar emotional concerns and patterns of growth and development. Their success or failure in life may be directly affected by experiences provided by the teacher in the classroom environment. An ear to listen could be the most important thing in their lives.

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